USDA

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT INSTITUTE

TRAINING IN ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT

T A M

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

February 24 through March 7, 1958

INTRODUCTORY

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTORY

LECTURES

ADDENDUM

FOREWARD

These are times of great changes in the management and administrative fields and we need to pause occasionally and take stock of where we are heading and where we ought to be heading. An institute like TAM affords an opportunity to accomplish the task of improved administrative management and to acquaint ourselves of new developments in this field.

We have, at this TAM institute a cross section of men skilled in the profession of management to discuss knowledge, ideas and information, and reflect current and future trends in the field of administrative management. We cannot help but profit from our participation in this institute with such a distinguished group.

To participate in an institute of this kind is a privilege. It presents an added challenge to all of us, not only to improve our own administrative responsibility but to translate to others, the thoughts and ideas which have been presented here so as to accomplish our goal which should always be - more effective public service.

One of the keys to the lasting success of this institute lies in the degree of follow-up exercised. Certainly the planning, organizing, and carrying out of local TAM workshops is a practical and effective way of doing this. Dedication of our group to such an undertaking will fittingly crown our efforts here.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We wish to express our thanks and appreciation to everyone who helped in the planning, organizing and carrying out the Minneapolis TAM Leadership Institute.

Thanks to Mr. Cole, Director of the Minneapolis Office of the Commodity Stabilization Service and his Service and Reproduction Staff for making possible the publication of this report and having it completed and in the hands of all participants of the TAM Institute by the closing day of the sessions.

We appreciate the efforts and work done by the USDA Management Improvement Committee in approving and expediting this Institute. The TAM Work Group did a splendid job in planning, organizing and carrying out the Minneapolis TAM Institute.

The membership of the Work Group was:

Ernest C. Betts, Jr.	- OP	(Co-chairman)
Joseph P. Loftus	- OAM	(Co-chairman)
William Laxton	- AMS	(Personnel Officer)
John Haughey	- CSS	(Personnel Officer)
Eugene J. Peterson	- SCS	(Chief, Safety, Training Branch)
Robert B. Harris	- ARS	(Chief, Management Research & Analysis Staff)
Jack Kern	- FS	(Training Officer)
Edward H. Steinberg	- FHA	(Staff Assistant)
T. H. Trosper	- OP	(Executive Secretary)

We thank Mr. W. W. Russell, Assistant State Conservationist with SCS in Minnesota and Mr. Larry Arent, Assistant to the Director of the CSS Commodity Office in Minneapolis for the good job they did in assisting the TAM Work Group by handling all the problems that came up locally in making this TAM session possible.

Most of all, we wish to thank the discussion leaders for their excellent talks and discussions on all phases of administrative management.

We sincerely appreciate and thank:

The Management of the Curtis Hotel at Minneapolis for good lodging facilities and the numerous courtesies it extended to us.

The Minneapolis Public Library for loaning us a large number of books and reference materials on administrative management.

The USDA Club of Twin Cities for its kindness in inviting us to attend their luncheon and meeting on February 27, 1958.

Mr. Gerald R. McKay, Visual Aids Specialist of the Minnesota Agricultural Extension Service for taking the picture of our group that appears in this publication.

AGENCY PARTICIPANTS

BACK ROW: SIMPSON, JOKINEN, HALVERSON, MC PHERSON, HENNIG, HATTER, MORGAN
JENSON, CAPAROON, SCHILF, JACKSON, PERSON, KLENK, MESICK
BIDDICK, JOHNSON, MOORE, LIEBE, WILLIAMS, EVANS, KARASOV, LIMOZAINE, BUELL, RUSSELL, RALSTON, REZNICHEK
DRESEN, SMITH, ROBERTS, COLEMAN, EDSTROM, SPENCER, LOGAN, TROSPER, ARENT

AGENCY PARTICIPANTS

BY AGENCY, NAME AND POSITION, AND ADDRESS

AGENCY	NAME AND POSITION	ADDRESS
	DULUTH, MINNESOTA	
AMS	Robert Jenson, Grain Insp. Supvr.	Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 338 Federal Building, Duluth, Minn.
	MARSHALL, MINNESOTA	
SCS	Gerald A. Simpson, Area Consv.	Soil Conservation Service, USDA, 112 North Third St., Marshall, Minnesota
	MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA	
CSS	William F. McPherson, Supervisory Agricultural Marketing Specialist	Minneapolis CSS Commodity Office, USDA, 1006 W. Lake St., Minneapolis 8, Minn.
CSS	Raymond Jokinen, Supvr. Accountant	Minneapolis CSS Commodity Office, USDA, 1006 W. Lake St., Minneapolis 8, Minn.
CSS	Ludwig J. Edstrom, Management Analyst	Minneapolis CSS Commodity Office, USDA, 1006 W. Lake St., Minneapolis 8, Minn.
ARS	Harry Karasov, Regional Employment Officer	Agricultural Research Service, USDA, 35 S. 5th Street, Minneapolis 2, Minn.
ARS	Bruce J. Limozaine, Asst. Reg. Adm. Service Officer, RBO	Agricultural Research Service, USDA, 35 S. 5th Street, Minneapolis 2, Minn.
AMS	Edward Liebe, Grain Tech.	Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 116 Federal Office Bldg., Minneapolis, Minnesota
	ROCHESTER, MINNESOTA	
SCS	W. M. Roberts, Area Consv.	Soil Conservation Service, USDA, 118½ North Broadway Rochester, Minnesota

ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA

SCS	P. G. Hennig, Jr., State Admin. Officer	Soil Conservation Service USDA, 517 Federal Courts Bldg., St. Paul 2, Minn.
FS	James T. Morgan, Chief Div. of Forest Economics	U. S. Forest Service, USDA St. Paul Campus, University of Minnesota, Lake States Forest Expt. Sta., St. Paul 1, Minnesota
FHA	Gordon F. Klenk, State Director	Farmers Home Admin., USDA 203 Federal Courts Bldg. St. Paul 2, Minnesota
AMS	Earl Biddick, Fr. F&V Insp.	Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 568 State Office Bldg., St. Paul, Minnesota
AMS	David Mesick, Anal. Stat. (Agr.)	Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 531 State Office Building, St. Paul, Minnesota
FCIC	Bertram H. Johnson, Agriculturist (Regional Underwriter)	Federal Crop Insurance Corp., USDA, P.O. Box 3110, St. Paul 1, Minnesota
ARS	Winton G. Evans, Veterinary Livestock Inspector, ADE	Agricultural Research Service, USDA, 410 Globe Building, St. Paul 1, Minn.
CSS	Elvin J. Person, State Administrative Officer	Minnesota ASC State Office, USDA, 1104 Main P.O. Bldg., St. Paul 1, Minnesota
Coop Ext. Serv.	Roland Abraham, Assistant Director	Cooperative Extension Service, University of Minnesota, University Farm St. Paul 1, Minnesota

ST. PETER, MINNESOTA

SCS	Lee K. Moore, Area Consv.	Soil Conservation Service USDA, 107½ S. Minnesota Ave., St. Peter, Minnesota

THIEF RIVER FALLS, MINNESOTA

SCS	H. G. Halverson, Area Consv.	Soil Conservation Service, USDA, 2nd and Atlantic Ave. Thief River Falls, Minn.

MADISON, WISCONSIN

CSS	Richard Dresen, Adm. Officer	Wisconsin ASC State Office P.O. Box 1227, Madison 4, Wisconsin
AMS	Clarence Caparoon, Anal. Stat. (Agr)	Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 421 S. State Capitol, Madison, Wisc.
FS	Gordon D. Logan, Adm. Officer, Div. of Adm. Mgt.	U. S. Forest Service, USDA Forest Products Laboratory Madison 5, Wisconsin
SCS	Charles H. Buell, State Admin. Officer	Soil Conservation Service USDA, 3010 E. Washington Ave., Madison 4, Wisconsin
FHA	George L. Reznichek, Chief Program Operations	Farmers Home Admin., USDA P.O. Box 1227, Madison 1, Wisconsin
ARS	E. A. Schilf, Assistant Veterinarian in Charge, ADE	Agricultural Research Service, USDA, 6 West State Capitol, Madison 2, Wisconsin
Coop Ext. Serv.	D. H. Williams, Asst. Director	Cooperative Extension Service, University of Wisconsin, Madison 6, Wisconsin

MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN

FS	James E. Coleman, Forester State and Private Industry	U. S. Forest Service, USDA 623 N. 2nd St., North Central Region, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
FS	J. Allen Jackson, Training-Safety Officer	U. S. Forest Service, USDA North Central Region Milwaukee, Wisconsin
FS	Donald W. Smith, Asst. Chief of Operation & Fire Control	U. S. Forest Service, 623 N. 2nd St., Milwaukee, Wisconsin
ARS	Melvin J. Hatter, Asst. Inspector in Charge, MID	Agricultural Research Service, USDA, 551 D Federal Bldg., Milwaukee Wisconsin

FS	<u>Robert A. Ralston</u>, Leader Northern Lakes Forest Research Center	U. S. Forest Service, USDA Lake States Forest Expt. Sta. Wausau, Wisconsin

LECTURES

WELCOME

By

Herbert A. Flueck
State Conservationist
U.S. Soil Conservation Service

I am very pleased to welcome you to this Leadership Development session; devoted specifically to training in administrative management. You men are to be congratulated in being selected to participate in this conference.

The United States Department of Agriculture is basically an organization of technical people. Most employees who are in management positions today advance through the technical route - so- we are indeed fortunate that the Department of Agriculture has had foresight to provide leadership development opportunities such as this conference will provide.

Experience indicates that we need better understanding of the broad concepts and principles of management -- in such fields as organization, program planning and execution, personnel administration and public relations. Better understanding of these concepts and principles will prepare us for handling the problems that arise from day to day, and to handle greater responsibilities.

You will have two weeks of listening and discussion. I believe you agree listening is an important avenue of communication. It is an art. A good listener is a good communicator.

You will have an unusual opportunity for exchange of ideas among the members of the various agencies of the Department. This conference should provide an excellent opportunity for you to become better acquainted with the programs of the various agencies represented here -- this contributing to better inter-agency understanding.

In looking over the list of participants, I note that Minnesota outnumbers Wisconsin by approximately 2 - 1. Since Wisconsin is my native State I ask you Minnesotans to treat them with dignity and respect, -- but, tonight in Williams Arena -- you Wisconsinites are on your own!

This conference provides both a challenge and an opportunity -- a challenge for each of you to do a better job of management and an opportunity to pass on the concepts of good management to your fellow workers.

If the facilities of my office can be of any help, do not hesitate to call on me. May you have a productive conference.

PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE INSTITUTE

By

T.H. Trosper

Mr. Trosper, who represented the Office of Personnel, USDA, directed the Twin City TAM Leadership Institute. He is Supervisor of the Bitterroot National Forest in Montana. He holds the BS degree from Montana State University and has worked on varied Forest Service assignments in the northern Rocky Mountain region.

SUMMARIZED BY J.A. JACKSON - FOREST SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Mr. Trosper opened the Institute by inviting each participant to introduce himself. He reviewed the purpose and objectives of TAM and emphasized what the Department expects and what the trainee may expect to get from this Institute.

1. What the Department expects to get from the Institute.

   a. Trained employees who will be considered for higher supervisory and administrative positions.

   b. Improved performance by trainees already in responsible positions.

   c. Development of administrative information that will have general use in the department.

   d. Nucleus from which better training in Administrative Management will spread throughout the department.

   e. Trained leaders to help plan, organize and carry out local TAM workshops.

2. What the trainees may expect from the Institute.

   a. Opportunity to hear and get acquainted with a few management leaders.

   b. Opportunity to work side by side with other selected individuals on problems of agricultural administration.

c. An opportunity to collect and present problems of administration from his own agency for cooperative solution.

d. To receive guided instructions on management principles.

e. Opportunity to review and discuss some of the best publications in the field of administrative management.

f. Information and "know how" on how to plan, organize and carry out local TAM workshops.

Mr. Trosper stated that it will be a participants' meeting; everyone is to take part in conducting the sessions. The success of the Institute will depend on how much each puts into it. Everyone will be asked late in the second week to make a frank appraisal of the Institute. These appraisals and those of past meetings will be used to guide the handling of future Institutes.

A steering committee and an editorial committee were appointed. Other assignments for the current day were made.

Mr. Trosper emphasized that this is an excellent opportunity for the participants to discuss mutual management problems, and to gain a better understanding of the work of each others agency.

REFERENCES

Secretary's Memorandum No. 1410 dated January 7, 1957.

Memorandum to all members and alternates of USDA Management Improvement Committee, over signature of Ralph S. Roberts, Administrative Assistant Secretary, May 13, 1957.

Memorandum to Heads of Department Agencies, over signature of Co-Chairman of TAM Work Group, December 5, 1957.

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

By

Ralph S. Roberts

Mr. Roberts is Administrative Assistant Secretary, USDA

SUMMARIZED BY BRUCE J. LIMOZAINE, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE AND JAMES T. MORGAN, FOREST SERVICE

The dual purpose of this Institute is to prepare the participants to assume broader management responsibilities and positions of leadership in management training in their respective agencies.

The aim is to develop leadership, one of the greatest needs in government today. The Institute is directed toward leadership development rather than the mechanics of organization. Good tools are invaluable but they must be in the hands of able managers.

The history of USDA is one of finding better ways to do the Department's work. Devoted men and women have made the USDA a center for experimentation in agriculture but also in planning, organization, and administration of programs. Today's employees have responsibility to continue this work.

Government has become big, complex, and ever-changing. In 1900 it had only 250,000 employees, was still relatively small in 1930. Then came depression, defense, war, and post-war periods, vast expansion of domestic and foreign programs. Great need stimulated better organization, brought many good minds to bear on the problems. Many types of social scientists directed inquiry toward improvement of administrative processes.

The growing awareness of emerging management principles was reflected in efforts to improve public service through intensive study and analysis on a broad scale. For instance, in 1937 Louis Browlow headed the President's Committee on Administrative Management, which reported these five basic recommendations:

1. Strengthen White House staff for proper exercise of Executive powers.
2. Strengthen central managerial agencies such as Budget Bureau and Civil Service Commission.
3. Extend the merit system of employment.
4. Reorganize the Executive Branch into a few large departments.
5. Revise the fiscal system for better accountability.

Many of these proposals, controversial at the time, are now standard procedure.

The Hoover Commission in 1949 reported (1) authority was diffused, (2) lines of authority confused, and (3) staff services were still insufficient. Management principles were said to be violated in eight major areas:

1. Too many major departments and agencies.
2. Line of command from President inadequate.
3. Top administrators lacked staff assistance.
4. No provision for building corps of administrators.
5. Rules too detailed and rigid.
6. Budgeting poor; "performance budgeting" recommended.
7. Accounting needed standardization, simplification, and decentralization.
8. General administrative services poorly organized and coordinated.

Not all of these points have been fully exploited but there is now a general awareness that government must conform to accepted standards of administration. It is too big and too important not to do so.

Personnel administration in government has made good progress.

1. Career and merit systems well established.
2. Pay structures improved.
3. Fringe benefits added.
4. Incentive program adopted.
5. In-service training gaining a foothold.
6. "Off-job" training a future possibility.

We know we need to develop good executives; we don't have enough of them in government, but do we know:

1. What are standards for successful executive performance? What personal characteristics and skills does the executive need?
2. How can we tell who has these qualities or can develop them? How can we measure them?

3. What is an effective executive training program?

4. How can such training be integrated in operations, made attractive and acceptable to busy managers?

There is much talk on the above points but little action. We must start doing things, trying new ideas. For example, what do we know about decision making, a primary task of management? Our understanding of the process is very limited. We know that intelligence, well rounded experience, and an understanding of people are necessary - not much else.

Work supervision in government is the weakest link in the management process. For effective manpower utilization supervisors must do more to release the maximum capacities of individuals.

The personnel expert should sift the good out of such approaches as "group dynamics," "brainstorming," and others and apply them to administration, but they must be applied with caution and understanding.

Other constructive steps to be taken are:

1. Use better standards for picking middle and top management people.

2. Identify and develop them early in their careers.

3. Don't leave them in jobs that waste their time.

Another need is an effective balance between political and career executives in top management. Many career men are too interested in maintaining the status quo. We must recognize the essential responsibilities of the political executives, who are necessary to insure responsive government. The career service is strengthened when political appointees take the job of framing and defending policies.

There is a job to do in management leadership in government. We must bring sound and constructive ideas to the service of the public. Exploration is costly and we must use ingenuity to find solutions without increased cost. We may not solve all problems but we can evolve with them.

PURPOSE AND FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

By

Dr. Sidney Mailick

Dr. Mailick is the Director of Programs of Executive Development for Government Administrators at University College in the University of Chicago. He also is a lecturer in the Political Science Department. He was awarded the Bachelor, Master and PHD degrees in Political Science at the University of Chicago. From 1950 to 1953 he was Research Examiner for the Chicago Civil Service Commission. Dr. Mailick has been with the University since 1953.

SUMMARIZED BY ROBERT E. JENSON, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE, AND HARRY KARASOV, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Dr. Mailick's presentation emphasized decision making as the heart of the administrative process. Several case histories involving decisions were used to illustrate his main points.

1. The Administrator and the administrative process can be defined many ways.

   a. An administrator is the one who attempts to secure the cooperation of individuals to achieve a common purpose.

   b. Luther Gulick's well known definition of administration is as follows:

   P-Planning
   O-Organizing
   S-Staffing
   D-Directing
   CO-Coordinating
   R-Reporting
   B-Budgeting

   c. Herbert Simon's definition of the administrator as one who makes decisions, communicates decisions, and motivates people to execute decisions was cited by Dr. Mailick.

2. Rational decisions involve several elements.

   a. Calculating various alternatives

   b. Examining consequences of various alternatives

   c. Doing this in terms of a given value-system - that is the goals or purposes of the organization.

(The above constitutes the decision. However, the administrator must communicate the decision to others and motivate the group to carry it out)

3. Purpose and Function of the Executive as an Arm of Management

a. Executives must believe that actions can be rational and that it is important to make rational decisions.

b. Executives must understand the inherent difficulty of achieving rationality in group decision making.

c. Executive must understand the elements or steps of the decision making process.

(1) Awareness phase -- need to calculate alternatives

(2) Inquiry phase - attempt to define nature of problem

(a) What important organization goals are involved? What personal motives are involved? Why compromise is possible or necessary if these conflict?

(b) What are the relevant alternatives?

(c) What are the possible consequences of each alternative? On the organization? On one's self? On other members of the organization? On the public?

(d) What techniques are available for obtaining essential information on the range of relevant alternatives or consequences?

(e) What means are available for implementing decisions?

(f) What means of escape are available in the event the decision proves wrong?

(g) What is the relation of moral and ethical values to what is deemed necessary or expedient.

(3) Choice phase - isolate alternatives

(4) Follow-up phase - after execution or implementation of decisions.

d. Executives in enhancing rationality must attempt to understand value systems - himself, the organization, the individual in it.

e. Executives must time their decisions. Where and when are most important.

f. Executives must make use of all available tools and be as precise, objective and scientific as circumstances permit. Statistic analysis can be of help in decision-making if factual date are available.

4. Dr. Mailick presented several case histories that illustrated the need for thinking through decisions. Participants as a group and several individuals enacted each case and made the necessary decisions. In a review of each case, Dr. Mailick pointed out that the administrator should:

a. Have a clear cut value system - that is, identify his motives or goals. He needs a criterion or yardstick.

b. Calculate alternative decisions

c. Analyze consequences of the alternative decisions

d. Make the best decision, communicate it to others and be sure that it is carried out.

REFERENCES

Jones, Manley, Executive Decision Making
Richard D. Irwin, Publisher 1957
Barnard, C.I., The Functions of the Executive
Harvard University Press 1945 334 P
Gulick L. & Urwick L. Eds., Papers on the Science of Administration
New York, Columbia University, Institute of Public Administration 1937 195 P
Simon, Herbert, Administrative Behavior

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

By

Frank H. Spencer

Mr. Spencer is Executive Assistant Administrator, Agricultural Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture. He has served since 1917 in administrative management positions in the Department. He has attended The Washington School of Accountancy, LaSalle Extension University of Chicago, and Alexander Hamilton Institute of New York.

SUMMARIZED BY EARL BIDDICK, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE AND JAMES E. COLEMAN, FOREST SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

In his opening remarks Mr. Spencer emphasized the universal appeal of the subject of leadership.

Leadership may be defined as the art of getting people to do:

What you want them to do.
When you want them to do it.
In the way you want them to do it.
Because they want to do it.

1. Qualities of Leadership

Knowledge of subject matter, organization, and human nature.
Imagination.
Responsibility.
Ability to select key assistants.
Ability to delegate.
Decisiveness.
Dependability.
Integrity.
Unselfishness.
Patience.
Courage.
Faith in one's self, in others, in the future, and in God.

2. Keys to Achievement of Leadership

Find a cause great enough to command your best.
Keep up with developments in your field.
Read.
Learn from people.
Be approachable.

Never do less than your best.
Analyze and think through problems.
Plan your work.
Practice making decisions.
Train yourself in speaking.
Train yourself in writing.
Analyze and evaluate yourself.
Never betray confidences.
Don't make promises lightly.
Keep the promises you do make.
When you lose - be a good loser.
Negotiate differences without compromising principles.
Control your temper.
Don't take yourself too seriously.
Neither seek nor dodge trouble.
Pray.

3. Tests of Leadership

No series of tests have yet been devised which can test a man for effectiveness in leadership as thoroughly and accurately as he can be tested for his knowledge of mathematics, law, or history. Fortunately, although not to be weighed by mathematics or formulae, leadership does lend itself to some degree of measurement. The effectiveness of leadership can be studied in the light of how the organization and how the leader himself react to certain criteria which we will describe as tests.

a. Organizational Tests

(1) How do the offices or shops look? Do things generally present a shipshape appearance that it is fair to expect from the operation in question? Furnishings, equipment, work flow, and cleanliness are factors to consider.

(2) Are employees interested in their jobs? Are employees just putting in time? Or do they display real concern for what they are doing?

(3) Is there a sense of organizational pride? This is a strong feeling on the part of everyone connected with the organization that he is doing a job that needs to be done, that contributes to an important end, and that the outfit with which he works is tops in its field.

(4) Is there abnormal turnover? Unduly high turnover usually means there is some cause for dissatisfaction on the part of employees. Care must be exercised in evaluating turnovers - some types of jobs normally produce a higher rate than others.

(5) Are deadlines substantially met? In working units where things seldom get done there is generally a weakness at the top.

(6) How well informed are members of the organization? Employees must have enough information of the pictures as a whole

so that they can feel a part of it. Real interest, at all levels, should be stimulated in the problems and progress of the organization.

(7) Can a man build a career within the organization? The size of the organization generally governs career possibilities. Sound leadership can, however, make it possible for a man to advance to the limit of his capabilities.

(8) What happens when an emergency arises? People all along the line should be so well trained that they would intelligently handle any emergency or unexpected happening without fear.

(9) What happens when the boss is away? The responsibility of a leader is not only to function while he is on the job, but to create an environment in which his assistants carry on freely and without fear of "second guessing" when he is away.

(10) Has the personal quality of the leader "rubbed off" on other members of the organization? A strong man can create strength in others. The degree to which a leader is able to produce through his operation a response to his own qualities is one measure of his effectiveness.

b. Tests for the Leader Himself

(1) What does advancement mean to you? Beyond money and authority, a man must feel challenged by the big job in itself, as he moves up the leadership ladder. Unless your concept of advancement includes some idealistic, as well as personal advantage elements, you will not achieve your best.

(2) How do you respond to the leadership of your superiors? You must be a part of the whole leadership chain. You must be able to give your superiors the same degree of loyalty and competence that you expect from those who are responsible to you.

(3) Do you have a real sense of responsibility for the welfare of your people? You should not lightly make decisions that have an impact on other people. People will come to a good leader with all manner of problems. You should feel complimented that they have come to you with a problem they find too much to handle alone.

(4) Can you trust yourself when all men doubt you, but make allowance for their doubting too? (Credit to R. Kipling here.)

(5) Can you adopt worthwhile new techniques without being swept away by the mere factor of novelty? Novelty may be interesting but in itself has no merit. Take advantage of new ideas without abandoning what is good in the old.

(6) Can you make use of other people's ideas without appropriating all of the credit? Develop and use the constructive

ideas of your staff. Be scrupulously careful that credit, monetary or otherwise, goes to the person who originated the idea or practice.

(7) Are you accessible without encouraging time wasters? It is possible to have time for everyone who needs to see you without permitting your time to be frittered away by those whose calls have no useful purpose either to you or themselves.

(8) How do you deal with mistakes?

(a) "Your own." Acknowledge them, rectify them, forget them, don't worry - do remember in the sense of experience.

(b) "Your subordinates." In serious mistakes know what they did wrong, why they did wrong, and how they may possibly avoid repetition. Speak to them alone. Give him a chance to explain how the error was made by helping him to see the error. Wipe the slate clean. Give the man another chance. If indicated, do not hesitate to place him in a spot where the effects of such errors will be minor.

(9) Can you be tough when necessary? A leader must firmly handle early breaches of discipline if he is to prevent the necessity of drastic action, such as discharge later. A leader must be capable of sympathy, but never the sympathy that can be construed as softness.

(10) Can you face opposition? If you are responsible for getting a job done, stand firm until the job is done.

(11) Can you face unpalatable facts? Pleasant or unpleasant, tackle the next task. Never refuse to look squarely at a problem.

(12) Can you reconcile differing viewpoints without sacrificing principles? The leader who sacrifices an important principle for the sake of temporary peace has lost the respect of every one, including himself.

(13) Can you lead an independent discussion on the current major problems of each unit in your organization? You must know what is going on in each of your units to the point where you are aware of their principal problems and what is being done about them.

(14) Can you keep your hands off matters which are the responsibility of your subordinates? The less details which you have as a leader the better off you will be.

(15) Do you trust people? Ability to trust people can save a leader from the curse of cynicism. A cynic has been described as a man who knows the price of everything and the value of nothing.

(16) Have you vital interest outside your job? A leader should have outside interests, such as family, church, fraternal, community, recreation, and hobbies to be well balanced.

(17) Does life look good to you? After you as a leader have observed and weighed life, carried heavy responsibility, made weighty decisions, mistakes, observed people reacting to emergencies, seen important developments in your organization, and understood the motivating forces that brought them about, the world should still look like a wonderful place to live.

DISCUSSION

Led by E. A. Schilf, Agricultural Research Service

The approval of Mr. Spencer's remarks was evidenced by the lively discussion which followed his address. The answers to each and every question attested Mr. Spencer's accurate and wide knowledge of the activities of the department and to his keen perception in human affairs. The inspirational quality which characterized his address was also also present in Mr. Spencer's answers during the discussion period. There were still many hands raised when the question period came to a close.

A resume of a few of the many questions follows:

1. A most effective way to get someone to do what you want them to do is to have the motive instilled in the individual by the supervisor.

2. A most effective way to keep abreast of developments in one field is to read. One must make their own opportunities to read and study and mostly after hours. Most people find time to do what they want to do.

3. It is recognized that it is difficult to find incentives for line supervisors because of delay in retirement of those above them. One aid is some kind of an award system.

4. Definite measurements of qualities should be used to fill supervisory jobs from rank and file.

5. Patience is one of the most important leadership qualities. By patience is meant taking the circumstances, evaluate them and then do the best one can with them.

6. There are less personal sacrifices today by leaders because of greater access to more and better tools to accomplish the work.

7. In evaluating oneself it is good practice to make comparisons with others in similar positions.

8. The tough attitude should be used only after all other approaches fail. One should first lay the proposition on the line, show it is legitimate, be frank, try to sell it. Then appeal to better nature by explaining how project is good for the whole.

REFERENCES

Argyris, Chris., Executive Leadership; an appraisal of a manager in action. New York, Harper, 1953. 139 p.

Barnard, C.I., Functions of the Executive. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1938. 334 p.

Bower, M., ed. The Development of Executive leadership. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1949. 130 p.

Cantor, N. The Executive as Leader. Personnel 33(3): 227-235. Nov. 1956.

Martin, R.C., Administrative Leadership in Government. Public Admin. p. 277-285. Autumn 1955.

Shartle, C.L., Executive Performance and Leadership. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1956. 302 p.

Shartle, C.L., Leadership Aspects of Administrative Behavior. Advanced Management. 15,(11): 12-15. Nov. 1950

Tead, Ordway, The Art of Leadership.

ORGANIZATION PRINCIPLES AND LEVELS OF AUTHORITY

By

Joseph P. Loftus

Mr. Loftus is Acting Director, Office of Administrative Management, U.S. Department of Agriculture. He is a graduate of St. Mary's College of Kansas and has had a variety of experience both public and private. Prior to assuming his duties with the Office of Administrative Management, which was organized under his direction, Mr. Loftus served for a year as Chairman of the Inter Agency Organization and Methods Conference in Washington, D.C.

SUMMARIZED BY ROLAND ABRAHAM, COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA AND GEORGE REZNICHEK, FARMERS HOME ADMINISTRATION, MADISON, WISCONSIN

DIGEST OF TALK

1. Preliminary Remarks

   Establishment of the Office of Administrative Management in January, 1957 required consideration to several fundamentals of organization:

   a. Prescribed Objective was management improvement throughout the Department and suggested close working relationship with Secretary's Management Improvement Committee and the various agencies.

   b. The organization structure as agreed upon, called for ten positions - eight management analysts and two stenographers.

   c. Staffing arrangements called for the filling of five positions from USDA and one each from the Air Force, Internal Revenue Service and Central Intelligence Agency; one was to be recruited directly out of college.

   d. Staff Development involved considerable orientation to the Office of the Secretary, the Management Improvement Committee and the various agencies.

   e. Budget and Controls needed to be carefully planned and considered. A project system was established incorporating the defined assignments and a means of determining progress.

2. Other general concepts or fundamentals recognized by students of organization are:

   a. Unity of command, usually meaning one responsible head.

   b. Reasonable span of control - not too many nor too few reporting to the boss. This may range from about six to twenty depending upon circumstances.

c. Logical grouping of functions under one responsible head. Similar or related functions and duties should be grouped together.

d. Delegation of authority to subordinates commensurate with capabilities and responsibilities but without abdication of authority and responsibility by the delegator.

e. Proper understanding of the functions of staff and line positions. Line officials are in the chair of command and are responsible for supervision; staff officials should remain "in the shadow" of line officials and provide guidance and technical help.

f. Appropriate consideration to advice and counsel of committees and subordinates. The charter or role of committee should be made clear: (1) advisory or (2) actual policy formulation.

Continuing, Mr. Loftus delivered a prepared speech an outline of which follows:

TAM

Discussion Outline

1. Organization has been defined as "the form of every human association for the attainment of a common purpose." 1/

   a. In form it is a structure based on division of work, providing for specific assignment of different functions to responsible persons or groups. It is administrative.

   b. Its members have resources of body, mind, and spirit to contribute. It is cooperative.

   c. It is a means to united action. It is purposeful.

2. While purposes differ, and types of cooperation are varied, and administrative practices may be dissimilar, students have tried to identify principles useful to know and practice.

   a. These principles in practice tend to become institutionalized.

   b. Historical institutions exemplify lessons of experience:-- state, church, and military organization, as well as the modern business corporation.

3. Some fundamental concepts of organization include those enumerated below

   a. Coordination is perhaps the first principle of organization.

   b. Leadership, or command, is essential. It is implemented through a scalar process or chain of command from superior to subordinate, and may involve committee or group participation in decision-making.

c. Authority, or power to act, involves two aspects:

(1) Responsibility attached to the exercise of authority.

(2) Delegation of authority multiplies the energy and capacity of a leader and serves to define the functions of his subordinates.

d. The span of control is a measure of how many subordinate officials one superior official can effectively supervise. The problem is one of relationships and intimate association to generate good team spirit.

e. Types of organization may be based on:

(1) Major process
(2) Major purpose
(3) Clientele (or Materiel)
(4) Place

f. Staff functions, as distinguished from line (of command) activities, should be:

(1) Informative
(2) Advisory
(3) Supervisory, in seeing that policy is disseminated and carried out.

g. Decentralization of organization is an effort to conduct business as close as practicable to the clientele served or the problem being attached. This is done to fit action to real problems at the point of need.

h. A football team is well organized to the extent that:

(1) Jobs are well defined.
(2) Relationships are well understood.
(3) Lines of authority are clear and short.
(4) Desire to win motivates effort.
(5) Adjustments are made to meet game conditions.

i. A code of conduct generally becomes institutionalized in an organization.

j. An organization of itself is not dynamic; the dynamic is in the individual.

k. USDA organization presents a wide range of variation in the adaptations made to serve American agriculture.

1/ Mooney, James D. "The Principles of Organization."

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION 1/

Principle No. 1 - "Every necessary function involved in the mission and objectives of the organization is assigned to a unit of that organization."

1/ Derived from Army Service Forces Manual M703-2

Principle No. 2 - "The responsibilities assigned to the unit of an organization are specifically clear-cut and understood."

Principle No. 3 - "No function is assigned to more than one independent unit of an organization. Overlapping responsibility will cause confusion and delay."

Principle No. 4 - "Consistent methods of organizational structure should be applied at each level of the organization."

Principle No. 5 - "Each member of the organization from top to bottom knows - (a) To whom he reports; (b) Who reports to him."

Principle No. 6 - "No member of an organization reports to more than one supervisor."

Principle No. 7 - "Responsibility for a function is matched by the authority necessary to perform that function."

Principle No. 8 - "Independent individuals or units reporting directly to a supervisor do not exceed the number which can be feasibly and effectively coordinated and directed."

Principle No. 9 - "Channels of command are not violated by staff units."

Principle No. 10 - "Authority and responsibility for action is decentralized to the units and individuals responsible for actual performance of operations to the greatest extent possible, so long, as such decentralization does not hamper necessary control over policy or the standardization of procedures."

Principle No. 11 - "Commanding officers should exercise control through attention to policy problems of exceptional importance rather than through review of routine actions of subordinates."

Principle No. 12 - "Organization should never be permitted to grow so elaborate as to hinder work accomplishment."

Mr. Loftus briefly discussed the work of the Hoover Commission and its impact on the operations of the Department of Agriculture. Following are excerpts from Reports of the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government:

GENERAL MANAGEMENT OF THE EXECUTIVE BRANCH

Summary: Any systematic effort to improve the organization and administration of the Government, therefore, must:

1. Create a more orderly grouping of the functions of Government into major departments and agencies under the President.

2. Establish a clear line of control from the President to these department and agency heads and from them to their subordinates...

3. Give the President and each department head strong staff services ...

4. Develop a much greater number of capable administrators in the public service, and prepare them for promotion to any bureau or department in the Government where their services may be most effectively used.

5. Enforce the accountability of administrators by a much broader pattern of controls, so that the statutes and regulations which govern administrative practices will encourage, rather then destroy, initiative and enterprise.

6. Permit the operating departments and agencies to administer for themselves a larger share of the routine administrative services, under strict supervision and in conformity with high standards.

Only by taking these steps can the operations of the executive branch be managed effectively, responsibly, and economically.

FEDERAL FIELD SERVICES

The business of the Federal Government is primarily transacted by field offices. Nearly 90 percent of all Federal employees work outside of Washington...

The findings of our task forces indicate the direction for reorganization and improvement. Among these findings, there are listed the following deficiencies.

1. Too many separately organized, highly specialized field offices representing individual departments, their bureaus, and even different units of one bureau.

2. The ineffectiveness of field offices in dealing with operating problems because headquarters fail to delegate authority.

3. Confused lines of direction and supervision between specialized headquarters units and the field.

4. Inadequate systems of reporting and inspection which prevent administrative officials from knowing how effectively and efficiently their field organization is performing.

5. Lack of coordination of effort among the various Federal field offices, both within the same agency and between different agencies.

6. Failure to make the most of potential cooperation from State and local governments and private organizations.

DISCUSSION

Led by P. G. Hennig, Jr., State Administrative Officer,
Soil Conservation Service

During the discussion period the following points were developed as a result of questions raised and problems introduced:

1. Unbalanced work loads frequently exist between individuals as well as units. It is the responsibility of management to determine the causes and to attempt a solution by direction, realignment, redele-

gation, improved organization or such other means as may be appropriate.

2. Clearly defined functions, responsibilities and delegations of authority enable a subordinate to know his range of leadership and facilitate more vigorous and positive action.

3. Prompt determination of policies as needed with the assistance or representation of subordinates assures greater program effectiveness and employee satisfaction.

4. Promptness and clarity in communication as to policy is a requisite of good administration. Policy statements should be limited to applicable relevent information to facilitate quick study and digest.

5. Overlapping of authority or duties breeds discontent and inefficiency; the administrator at the appropriate level should take prompt corrective steps whenever such overlapping is found to exist.

6. Coordination of effort is an important factor in attaining objective objectives regardless of scope. Good leadership promotes coordination at all levels.

7. Well defined and complete objectives facilitate effectiveness. Objectives should be considered in light of the factors which may effect the ease or difficulty of attainment, such as budgetary considerations and availability of manpower.

8. Decentralization with more authority vested in subordinate positions may have further possibilities but requires improved systems for evaluating program effectiveness and determining adherence to policy. Automatic Data Processing machines may be useful in summarizing pertinent information. Internal audits become more important as decentralization increases.

Selected Bibliography
(Reading List)

Brown, Alvin. "Organization of Industry," New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947

Gillmor, R.E. "A Practical Manual of Organization," New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1948

Gulick and Urwick. "Papers on the Science of Administration," New York: Columbia University, 1937

Mooney, James D. "The Principles of Organization," New York: Harper and Brothers, 1947

Seckler-Hudson, Catheryn, Editor. "Processes of Organization and Management," Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1948

Urwick, Lyndall. "Notes on The Theory of Organization," New York: American Management Association, 1952

REFERENCES

Brown, Alvin, Organization of Industry. New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947.

Gillmor, R. E., A Practical Manual of Organization, New York, Funk and Wagnalls, 1948.

Gulick and Urwick, Papers on the Science of Administration. New York, Columbia University, 1937.

Mooney, James D., The Principles of Organization. New York, Harper and Brothers, 1947.

Seckler-Hudson, Catheryn, Editor, Processes of Organization and Management. Washington, D. C., Public Affairs Press, 1948.

Urwick, Lyndall, Notes on the Theory of Organization. New York, American Management Association, 1952.

PROGRAM PLANNING AND PROGRAM EXECUTION

By

Arthur W. Greeley

Mr. Greeley is Regional Forester, Region 9, with headquarters at Milwaukee, Wisconsin. He joined the department as a Junior Forester, working in several of the Western National Forests. He served in several progressively important positions prior to his appointment as Regional Forester for Alaska in 1953. He was made Regional Forester Region 9 in 1956. He received a B.S. degree in Forestry from the University of Washington and a Masters degree in Forestry from Yale University.

SUMMARIZED BY EDWARD A. SCHILF, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE AND LUDWIG J. EDSTROM, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Mr. Greeley used several real life examples to illustrate the difference between the more complex long range planning of programs and the more simple everyday work planning. Preparations for the Christmas season involve program planning and while the everyday trip to the corner grocery was used to illustrate a plan. The main distinction between programs and plans is one of complexity, scope and range.

According to Mr. Greeley, program planning and execution include the following:

1. Authorizing legislation or policy determination
2. Setting up of clear cut objectives
3. Investigating precedents
4. Policy decisions
5. Action decisions
6. Coordination with other functions
7. Setting target dates
8. Public relations

9. Administrative Management

    a. Organization

    b. Leadership

10. Controls

The speaker emphasized several points about which he felt very strongly in judging the probable success or failure of any program. These were:

1. Strong but subtle leadership by the program administrator

2. The need for imagination in determining effective controls and setting target dates

3. Revalidation of objectives from time to time

4. Consideration of program execution as a dynamic thing.

The speaker drew on his personal experience as administrator of a Forest Service program in Alaska to illustrate specifically the several points made during the preceding presentation.

The Forest Service Program in Alaska

(Objective was determined as a result of a policy decision rather than in specific laws. It is an open-ended program. No termination event, or date.)

1. Basic background facts.

    a. Economy of Alaska

    b. Timber resource of S. E. Alaska

    c. Ways the merchandise can be made attractive.

2. Setting the objectives.

3. Outlining a program to accomplish these objectives.

    a. Legislative authorizations

    b. Policy Decisions

        (1) Primary Manufacture in Alaska

        (2) Size and length of sale offerings, and preferred product.

        (3) Stumpage price problems.

c. Precedent

(1) Alaska's poor reputation as a site for industry.

(2) Labor and other on-site costs.

(3) Transportation problems

(4) Labor force

(5) Tax concessions

5. Anticipating and Solving Problems in Advance.

a. Timber inventories and other information needed for planning.

b. Technical data on pulping characteristics and methods.

c. Indian land claims.

d. Locations for mill sites.

e. Road problems.

f. Community preparedness.

g. Salmon stream problems.

6. Executing the Program.

a. Early sales, 1920, 1927.

b. Investigations in 1939, 1942, 1947.

c. The first consummated sale

(1) Contract negotiations

(2) Purchaser's problems

(3) Community problems

(4) Territorial problems

d. Subsequent sales; and products other than pulp.

7. Changes in the program

a. Re-inventories and realignment of units.

b. De-emphasis of water power as an asset.

c. Changing economic conditions.

d. Basic program and objectives remain same.

8. Dependent programs that had to be carried on as part of the main program.

   a. Timber inventories.

   b. Getting good maps.

   c. Special financing for roads and community improvements.

   d. Legislation on Indian land claims.

   e. Rivers and Harbor improvements.

9. Dependent plans that were part of the main program.

   a. Timber management plans.

   b. Transportation plans.

   c. Community improvement plans.

   d. Plans for uses of other lands.

10. Controls.

11. Comparison with a program that has specific legislative authorization, like Operation Outdoors.

DISCUSSION

Led by Robert A. Ralston, U. S. Forest Service

Some of the questions and answers covered in the discussion are as follows:

Q. How does an administrator orient himself to a great change?

A. Background information must be gained from accumulated materials. History of the project must be studied. It was suggested that administrators leave their tracks open for successors.

Q. In a top management change, there may be a lag in program progress. Is this to be expected or can it be circumvented?

A. It is recognized that there is a need for a dynamic program for training executives. Increased training programs should lessen this lag appreciably.

Program planning in many of the agencies represented was described and discussed. The discussion revealed that in practically all instances, the Department agency cooperates with a state or other local agency. Programs may be suggested by cooperating committees at various levels. Program planning and execution involves many people outside the department. The agency generally sets goals which are amended and revised with changes in needs of the public and funds available to execute the program.

REFERENCES

Koontz, H., and O'Donnell, C. Principles of Management; an analysis of managerial functions. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1955. 664 p. Pt. 5, Planning, P. 429-544.

Newman, W. H. Administrative action; the techniques of organization and management. New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951. 483 p. Pt. 1, Planning, p. 13-120.

Terry, G. R. Principles of management. Rev. ed. Homewood, Ill., Irwin, 1956. Pt. 2, Planning, p. 109-234, Pt. 4, Actuating, p. 341-472.

Lloyd, L. E. Planning for action: from business forecast to company program. American Management Assocation, General Management Series, 167; 3-11. 1953.

Wengert, N., and Honey, J. C. Program planning in the U.S. Department of the Interior, 1946-1953. Public Admin. Rev. 14(3): 191-201. Summer 1954.

RESEARCH -- A NEW CHALLENGE IN ADMINISTRATION

By

Gordon D. Logan

Mr. Logan is Chief of the Division of Administrative Management, Forest Products Laboratory, Forest Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture at Madison, Wisconsin. Graduated from the University of Wisconsin with major in Public and Personnel Administration. He has twenty-two years of Federal Administrative work both in various field and Washington office assignments.

SUMMARIZED BY DAVID MESICK, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE AND M. J. HATTER, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

Research has quite recently become a common term and a popular one in our economy. Research is inquiry and for our consideration it is considered as organized inquiry aimed at the discovery of new facts that can be put to desirable public use.

Within a relatively few years, we have witnessed the development, through growing need, of organized research activities and facilities. It demands trained technical people, trained in quantity and quality beyond the facilities of our universities to prepare them. There has developed almost overnight an awareness of problems in the administration of research. The tremendous hurry for research and the many attending and competitive problems relating to it have brought out a need for better administration in the rapidly growing field of research.

The sound administrator of today must not only be aware of research, its need, its place, its results and its cost, but he must recognize that the administration of research presents problems that are peculiar to and urgent in this relatively new field of management.

Questions such as these are commonplace today:

1. What kind of organization will best accomplish the research purpose?

2. What sort of yardstick is needed to evaluate research efforts and results?

3. How can management effectively recruit and deal with research personnel; are they really a different kind of people?

4. How effectively can or should research be cost-accounted?

5. What is the relative place of the scientist-trained administrator as compared to the management-trained?

6. What is the significance of the working environment on research people and their accomplishments?

This is a general list of the following aspects of research organization:

1. Organization

2. Technical Program

3. Facilities and Services

4. Money

5. People

Organization

Whether government or industrial, research is rapidly becoming a segment of organization that is tremendously significant both in the defense and world leadership status of our country and to our own future economic welfare.

1. The Administrative Staff

   a. Whether designed or not, one of the most significant reasons for selecting a well trained technical man as research director, is the professional respect that a research staff must have for their leader and the respect the leader has for the research process.

   b. The position of research director should call for a highly trained and competent research man with proven administrative ability.

   c. A research organization will obviously be judged primarily by the direction, the competence, and the accomplishment of its technical program through its technical staff.

2. Decentralization

   a. It is considered necessary for a research organization, and each unit in the organization, to operate with as much delegation as possible.

   b. Decentralization of responsibility, of decision making authority, when properly handled can breathe new life and

inject a stimulating sense of purpose throughout the organization. This is effectively done in many industrial research units and in some government establishments.

3. Technical and Service Divisions

a. Technical divisions in research are obviously established and operated along lines of work that permit normal groupings of activities by fields of work.

b. Service divisions are headed by men trained in their respective fields, management, publication work, and finance.

4. Communications

a. One of the very real problems in organization for research is that of effective communications.

b. Good, effective communications are a problem everywhere largely because they depend upon people.

c. In research individuals and groups must know what is being done by their own co-workers in the same or related fields, as well as elsewhere in the profession.

d. This problem of communication is one that can readily dictate the success or failure of a research mission.

e. It becomes a necessity for the organization to be so developed and operated as to allow for effective communications between individuals, units, divisions, and related sources of information.

5. The Nontechnical Staff

a. One of the most underrated aspects of research organization is that area that can be effectively served by qualified and capable assistants to the technical staff - they can be a very real asset in a research program.

b. Some types of research lend themselves to situations where one technical man can readily accomplish more than double his previous output with the proper availability and use of competent semi-or sub professional help.

<u>Technical Program</u>

1. Technical Program

a. Program Policy - One of the most complex problems in research administration is that of planning and developing a sound program of research.

b. Program Development - Program development in research could broadly be said to converge from two directions: one the basic purpose as set forth in Bureau responsibility; the other the constant accumulation of problems and proposed projects that result from ideas and experiences of the technical staff.

Program formulation and execution is a major and continuing responsibility in research administration.

c. Reports - A well coordinated plan of progress reporting on research projects is essential to program operation and control. Simplicity and brevity are stressed with emphasis on summary statements as to the progress of program activities. It should be stressed that as much of the preparation of these reports as possible be handled by competent secretaries and their staff in order that research personnel can be relieved of all possible amount of paper work.

d. Research Publications - The tangible evidence of the research program and accomplishment is made available through a constant flow of publications. These publications serve as the primary means by which the results of each program of work done under the auspices of the government and essentially at government expense are made available in useful form to the public.

2. Facilities and Services

There is a clear distinction between the management problems that relate to the technical program and those management problems that relate to the various service and facilitating activities in research. Just as there should be a distinction between them, there is at the same time a direct relationship.

a. Service Philosophy - Stress must be placed here on the established principle that the time of the scientist or engineer is more critical than that of service personnel. There is the need for a well developed, well integrated service organization that is not itself founded on layers of authority.

The greatest problem in administering the facilities and services units of a research establishment is that of creating in every single person a recognition of the research purpose. The fact remains that there are few laboratories today that can possibly produce effective scientific accomplishment without a tremendous degree of cooperation and teamwork on a laboratory wide basis.

b. Less Organization - More Service - In research in particular, and more specifically in the service aspects of research, we

need to exercise a constant effort toward simplicity of operation. Organization is a complicated and costly function that can, if we are not careful, create a situation where the proverbial organization tail wags the research dog.

3. Money

a. Annual Budget - The major money problem in government research stems from the fact that appropriations are made on an annual basis and the funds are limited to current fiscal year.

For example, on an annual budget and appropriation basis:

(1) It is practically impossible to plan effectively on a long range basis.

(2) It poses real problems from year to year in orderly procurement of research equipment.

(3) It complicates staffing problem since it provides no sound basis on which to estimate funds for recruiting, training and replacing personnel.

(4) It tends to encourage work on short-term projects, many of which are not essential as the more fundamental and long range ones.

(5) It accentuates emphasis on reports and paperwork.

b. Fixed Costs - The distribution of money within the laboratory is essentially at the discretion of the director. This is accomplished by correlating the funds available with the work program. The question should more often be asked, how much "organization money" can we tolerate for servicing the research mission. The maximum amount possible should go into the actual research functions.

c. Cost Account - One of the basic and continuing arguments in handling research funds is the problem of accounting and audits. Reasonable accounting for research expenditures is justifiable and should be expected.

Money and budgets are an integral part of the programming and operation of research and as such have a prominent functional responsibility in the proper planning and administration of research.

4. People

A group of highly trained scientists engaged in research cannot be managed by techniques the same as used in line production

operations. The very circumstances, which render it difficult to exercise effective control over scientific research activities, also intensify the need for such control.

a. Research Type - The researcher is trained to question, to be individualistic, to investigate. What must be treasured is individual initiative, inquisitive habit, inquiring mind, all vital to significant accomplishment in research.

b. Teamwork - Numerous methods are utilized to stimulate and develop the desire and ability of research people to acquire traits of working more productively, effectively and harmoniously together.

c. Specialists and Generalists - Research directors hold in their hands responsibility for making wise decisions in the selection and development of their staff in the areas of responsibility within which each man can contribute the most of his talents.

5. Conclusion

The role of administration in research is relatively new. In addition to being a challenging new field of administration, research offers tremendous opportunity for inquiry into the problem of research administration itself. What is immediately needed is a better understanding of research, its mission, its people, along with an effort to create organization structure that will facilitate the research job.

DISCUSSION

Led by Charles H. Buell, Soil Conservation Service

A period of discussion followed with questions for further thought and review.

1. Types of outside research problems taken up by a research laboratory?
2. How is the budget set up for these outside research problems conducted by a research laboratory?
3. What tangible evidence of results are needed?
4. What methods of measurements are used to evaluate success?
5. By what means are findings provided the public?
6. How are research personnel performance standards developed and evaluated?

7. What are practical differences between fundamental and applied research and their relative place in a laboratory?

REFERENCES

Anthony and Day. Management Controls in Industrial Research Organizations. Harvard University Printing Office, 1952

Bush and Hattery. Scientific Research: Its Administration and Organization. Published by American University Press, 1950

William Whyte. The Organization Man

Association of Consulting Management Engineers. Managing Research and Development: Some Problems and Pitfalls. The Management Review, April 1957 (Published Monthly)

Bush and Hattery. Teamwork in Research. American University Press, 1953

Frolich. Research Administration is a Problem. Industrial Laboratories, May 1956 (Published Monthly)

FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT, INTERNAL AUDIT, AND REPORTING

By

John C. Cooper, Jr.

Mr. Cooper is Deputy Director, Office of Budget and Finance, U.S. Department of Agriculture. He joined the Department in 1934 and served in the Farm Credit Administration until 1945, when he transferred to the Office of Budget and Finance. He holds a B.A. degree from Furman University of Greenville, South Carolina.

SUMMARIZED BY RICHARD T. DRESEN, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE AND W.M. ROBERTS, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

Financial management in public administration and as applied in the Department of Agriculture is the process and methods by which funds and financial resources are acquired, administered, accounted for, and reported on by officials of the Department.

1. Basic Concepts

a. Financial management is, of necessity, an integral part of program management and responsibility for it, except for internal audit, should be shared at all levels.

b. There are four major processes in financial management, all of which are interrelated, but each of which independently plays a major role in the effective and economical accomplishment of program responsibilities of the Department. These are:

(1) Budgeting
(2) Accounting
(3) Reporting
(4) Internal Auditing

Each of these processes are directly related to all parts of program management, which are:

(1) Policy Determination
(2) Planning
(3) Operations
(4) Results

2. Constitutional and Legislative Requirements

Thousands of laws, regulations, Comptroller General decisions, etc., directly affect various aspects of our financial management activities. Several of these are:

a. The Constitution, a basic principle on the expenditure of public funds.

b. The Budget and Accounting Act of 1921, as amended through the years to August 1, 1956. This Act includes the following:

(1) Responsibility of the President for submission to the Congress of an Executive Budget.

(2) Requires the President to present data on actual expenditures for the past budget year and estimated expenditures for the current and next budget years.

(3) Established the Bureau of the Budget.

(4) Established the General Accounting Office and provided that it report direct to the Congress.

(5) Other specific provisions with respect to the responsibility of the Head of the Agency on accounting and internal audit.

c. The Antideficiency Act, as amended.

This legislation:

(1) Provides for the apportionment of funds.

(2) Prohibits obligation of funds in advance of appropriations.

(3) Prohibits obligation or expenditure of funds in excess of apportionments or allotments, which are made pursuant to apportionments.

3. Budgeting

a. Basic principles

These were concisely expressed by Mr. Harold D. Smith, former Director of the Bureau of the Budget, in 1944, as follows:

(1) The principle of publicity.
(2) The principle of clarity

(3) The principle of comprehensiveness.
(4) The principle of budget unity.
(5) The principle of detailed specifications.
(6) The principle of prior authorizations.
(7) The principle of periodicity.
(8) The principle of accuracy.

b. Forecasting and Initial Estimates (March-June)

The Budget Bureau advises each Department of over-all policy for budget year and calls for initial summary estimates. The Department calls for initial summary estimates. The Agency of the Department prepares an initial summary of estimates. The Department budget committee reviews estimates and makes recommendations to the Secretary who decides amounts of initial summary estimates and transmits to the Budget Bureau. The Budget Bureau reviews the initial summary estimates and advises department of ceiling allowances. All forecasts are based on program plans.

c. Development of Estimates and Final Determinations

Each agency of the Department prepares their estimates during the period March to June. These estimates are reviewed during July and August by the Department budget committee in the light of ceiling allowances set by the Budget Bureau and the Department recommends individual agency allowances to the Secretary. The Department Secretary then makes final determinations in August and notifies the agency. In August and September the agency prepares department estimates using the uniform project system. In making agency budget estimates, the following items are taken into consideration:

(1) Is the activity authorized by substantive law?

(2) For new activities is it clear that it is a Federal and not a State or local responsibility?

(3) If an increase is requested, is it clear that the objective cannot be accomplished by revisions in the existing program of work rather than by adding to it?

(4) What are the nature and estimated extent of expenditures for this activity for the current year?

(5) Does the justification contain the figures applicable?

(6) Is there a supportable explanation of how the amounts were arrived at?

(7) Are there cost criteria, statistics or other elements of measurement applicable?

(8) If there is need for cooperation with other agencies, is it given adequate recognition?

(9) Is it a proper activity for the organization requesting the funds?

(10) Does the activity overlap that of another agency?

(11) Has the estimate been coordinated with those of other agencies doing similar work?

(12) What are the nature, extent and disposition of receipts?

d. Departmental Review

During the period July to September, the Department reviews the agency estimates as received with accompanying justifications and other required supporting data. Estimates are then revised by the agencies on the basis of the Department review and preparation of their respective portions of the Department budget is started.

e. Budget Bureau Review and Development of Presidents Budget

During the period October to December the Budget Bureau reviews Department estimates, holds hearings with Department representatives, makes recommendations to the President, and notifies the Department of the President's determination. The Department then notifies the agency of the President's action on which basis the agency revises their estimates. The Department in December reviews the revised estimates and transmits to the Budget Bureau, who compiles the formal budget document for submission to Congress by the President.

f. President transmits budget to Congress.

g. Congressional consideration of budget.

h. Budget execution.

This is carried out after signing of the Appropriation Act and funds are made available to the Department and consist of:

(1) Financial planning
(2) Apportionment of funds
(3) Allotment of funds

i. Continuous re-examination and re-appraisal

4. Accounting

This is carried out under the basic principles as set forth in the Budget and Accounting Act, as amended in 1950 and in the Department Regulations.

5. Budgetary and Financial Reporting

a. Basic principles

(1) Reporting is a control function.

(2) The system should be tailor-made to fit the needs and programs of the agency.

(3) The system should be designed to provide a measure of performance, indication of trends, and a means of detecting deviations from the plan of operations.

(4) Complete coverage of all principal operations.

(5) Preparation of periodic reports at regular intervals.

(6) Flexibility of reporting procedures.

(7) Reports to flow upward along lines of responsibility.

(8) Report details to decrease at each successively higher organization level.

(9) Dependence on reports to transform the detailed information into summary form.

b. Usefulness of reports to management

To be useful they must be practical, complete, concise, clear, intellectually honest, readable, timely and in proper format.

c. Importance of reports in financial management

Reporting is an important management tool in all phases of program work and in financial management is especially important to:

(1) Provide management with basic data on utilization of funds and status of financial resources.

(2) Provide a basis for future planning.

(3) Provide management with a means for measuring performance with established goals or objectives.

(4) Reflect accountabilities for funds and assets.

(5) Account to the Congress and the public for our stewardship of the taxpayer's dollars.

6. Internal Auditing

a. As defined by the Institute of Internal Auditors, internal auditing is "the independent appraisal activity within an organization for the review of accounting, financial and other operations as a basis for service to management. It is a managerial control, which functions by measuring and evaluating the affectiveness of other controls." Internal auditing is required by law which specifically requires that the head of each executive agency shall be responsible for the establishment of systems of internal control including appropriate internal audit. The following elements apply:

(1) Independence of the Internal Auditor

He should be independent of the officials who are directly responsible for the operations he is charged with auditing.

(2) Assists all levels of management.

(3) Staff function rather than operating function.

(4) Appraisal function.

(5) Patterned to need of management.

b. Scope of the Auditor's Work

(1) Adherence with established plans, policies and procedures.

(2) Adequacy of plans and procedures.

(3) Soundness of controls.

(4) Accuracy of records

(5) Safeguarding of agency's assets.

c. Reporting findings and recommendations

Audit findings should be discussed with the officials in charge of the activity audited before the report is written. The report should be presented in such manner that management will act upon it without undue delay.

DISCUSSION

Led by Raymond Jokinen, Commodity Stabilization Service

The discussion developed the following additional facts:

1. The purpose of budget apportionment is to force administration to prepare a specific plan to carry the program through an entire year. It precludes the possibility of fund shortage as the end of the fiscal year is approached. Separate apportionment for personal service funds and other funds prevent fund interchange between the two if sound planning and management of each is not used. There is room within the procedure for an agency to apportion on other than a quarterly basis if more suitable for operation.

2. The scope of internal audit covers the complete operations of an agency and is only limited by the ability of the individuals performing the audit. Its principal value to management has been largely in program items and not limited to accounting. Audit reports, in an effort to be brief and concise, tend to list mainly negative items.

3. Audits made by GAO are independent of internal audits. To avoid duplication GAO reviews a sample of internal audits and if satisfied does not duplicate. Aversion of employees to audit is the fundamental human trait of opposition to anyone looking over your shoulder. Agencies can reduce opposition by giving a full explanation of the reasons for and value of audits.

4. GAO audit reports are completed about a year after audit. Before being turned over to the Congress a draft is given the Secretary's office. This is reviewed by agency heads and an opportunity provided for their comment before final draft of the report is prepared.

5. Some agencies are audited in whole or in part by outside CPA's approved by the agency. R.E.A. is an example. USDA has no authority to so arrange but GAO does. It appears that government policy may be headed in that direction.

REFERENCES

Kohler, Eric L. and Wright, Howard W.; Accounting - In the Federal Government Prentice Hall, 1956

Walker, Robert A., The Relation of Budgeting to Program Planning. Public Aministration Review Vol. IV, No. 2 Spring, 1944

Smithies, Arthur, The Budgetary Process in the U. S. McGraw - Hill Book Company, New York, 1955

Federal Government Accountants Association, Proceedings of Symposium on Internal Control - Federal Accountant, January, 1952

GAINING A BROADER UNDERSTANDING OF USDA

By

Ernest C. Betts, Jr.

Mr. Betts is Director of Personnel, the U.S. Department of Agriculture. He began his government career in 1939 with the Soil Conservation Service and has held many important government positions since then. Mr. Betts received his advanced education at State Teachers College of Platteville, Wisconsin.

SUMMARIZED BY ELVIN J. PERSON, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE AND LEE K. MOORE, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

TAM sessions are an excellent approach in gaining a broader understanding of the USDA. Work shops, as a result of TAM, will serve to give a broadened viewpoint to many more field people of the Department. The general lack of understanding the functions of the USDA is understandable when it is realized that it must administer a heterogenous group of laws.

Early government interest in agriculture was concerned chiefly with the needs for new seeds and plants in a new country. In 1839, one thousand dollars was appropriated to an Agriculture Division in the Patent Office for the collection of new seeds and plants and for "other agricultural purposes". In 1849 the Patent Office with its Agriculture Division became part of the new Interior Department. The USDA was created in 1862 to gather and disseminate information and statistics on agriculture and Isaac Newton became the first Commissioner of Agriculture. During this same year the Morrill Act was passed creating the Land Grant Colleges and 11,000,000 acres of land were granted for agricultural and scientific purposes.

In 1889 the USDA attained departmental status and the first secretary, Norman J. Coleman was appointed. The Bureau of Animal Industry created in 1881 became a part of USDA in 1889.

In 1905 the Forest Service was transferred from the Interior Department to the USDA and the Meat Inspection Division became a part of the USDA. In 1914 the Smith-Lever Act authorized grants to the states for establishment of the Extension Service and the Hatch Act authorized grants for the State Experiment Stations.

In 1933 several new action agencies were created including the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, the Rural Rehabilitation Corporation and the Soil Erosion Service in the Department of Interior. (In 1935 the Soil Erosion Service was changed to the Soil Conservation Service

and transferred to the USDA). In 1935 the Rural Electrification Administration was established as an independent agency. In 1939 it was transferred to the USDA. The Production and Marketing Administration emerged from War Food Administration of World War II. The Research and Market Act establishing the Agricultural Research Administration was passed in 1946.

In 1948 the first Hoover Commission asserted that the USDA was "a loose confederation of independent agencies with Bureau Chiefs almost autonomous." The reorganizations of 1953 resulted from a critical study by the Hoover Commission. Although misunderstood by the people any many employees, this reorganization was sound and helped to improve the Department. Its major purpose was the grouping of agencies with common purposes. Each group is headed by an Assistant Secretary who is a political appointee. An exception to this is the Agricultural Credit Services headed by a Director. The Assistant Secretaries have all the authority of the Secretary for the agencies they head. They can be designated as Acting Secretary of Agriculture.

A series of slides showing early development, organization charts, and functions of the various Bureaus and Office of USDA were shown. These slides covered the same material presented in chart form in "Guide to Broader Understanding and Better Public Service for USDA Employees" distributed to all participants of the TAM session. This is an important reference for TAM workshops.

<u>How Policy is Developed</u>

The USDA Policy Committee is composed of:

The Secretary
The Undersecretary
The General Council
The 3 Assistant Secretaries
The Assistant to the Secretary
3 or 4 Staff Assistants

As new policies are needed they are considered by this group. Assistant Secretaries often become advocates of new policies in their fields. After extensive discussions by the Policy Committee, decisions are made and policies are put into effect. The Policy Committee has a stabilizing affect on USDA because it provides for adequate specialized or technical considerations recommended by career employees and at the same time it is sensitive to political considerations.

DISCUSSION

Led by C. D. Caparoon, Agricultural Marketing Service

1. Clarifications of status of State Extension Service Employees in the USDA was requested.

State Extension Employees hold Federal Appointments without compensation - they have retirement and insurance benefits. Federal-State Extension Service relationships are covered in a Memo of Understanding signed by the Secretary of Agriculture and the Presidents of Land Grant Colleges (except in California). State Extension Service employees are not in the usual sense Federal employees.

2. Where do Department Policies Originate?

From within USDA and from without - USDA is a focal point. Policies from without originate from farm organizations, state colleges, commodity and trade groups, program advisory groups, etc. Usually public interest in policy changes is expressed through organizations, departmental personnel or by individual suggestions. Detailed policies tend to come up through agency channels.

3. What are practical means of coordinating USDA functions at the field level?

USDA clubs are helpful but have limitations. County Agricultural Councils and similar groups (mostly out growth of World War II - War Boards) can be very effective. Proximity of offices is helpful. Results of this TAM session and follow-up work shops. Better cooperation between agencies at the state level. Cooperation with Civil Defense effort.

4. How are Agency Heads Recruited?

Career agency heads are selected through regular civil service procedures for the following agencies: (ARS Ext. Service, FS, AMS, CEA)

Heads of SCS, FAO, CSS, FCIC are all Schedule C employees.

Heads of FHA and REA are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate.

REFERENCES

Guide to Broader Understanding of the USDA - USDA Publication
Condensed History of USDA - USDA Publication
Title I, Chapters 1, 2, 3 of Administrative Regulations of the Dept. Of Agriculture
Gaus, John M. - Public Administration and the USDA Public Administration Service, Chicago, Illinois - 1940

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN MANAGEMENT

By

Ernest C. Betts, Jr.

Mr. Betts is Director of Personnel, U.S. Department of Agriculture. He began his government career in 1939 with the Soil Conservation Service and has held many important and varied positions since then, including service as an assistant to Secretary Benson and tours of duty with the State Department and the Technical Cooperative Administration. Mr. Betts received his advanced education at State Teachers College of Platteville, Wisconsin.

SUMMARIZED BY RICHARD DRESEN, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE
C.D. CAPAROON, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

These are times of great changes in the management and administrative fields and we need to pause occasionally and take stock of where we are heading or where we ought to be heading. Personnel operations should be coordinated with other phases of management. They are an important arm of management and must be kept in "full gear" with budget and finance operations and other management functions. Three basic guides must be kept in mind in evaluating personnel operations.

1. How should personnel administration be handled in the Department of Agriculture so that the tax dollar will bring the greatest return?

2. How can the personnel staff people of the Department best assist with this objective?

3. How can the Office of Personnel be most effective in achieving this objective?

This Department has believed that personnel administration is an integral part of the line operator's function.

1. Management of personnel is the principal duty of every supervisor at all levels.

2. Personnel staff people help line officials in these ways.

    a. Getting most capable people to join us as employees.

    b. Helping to find ways of developing and utilizing

present employees to their fullest capacities and potentials and creating satisfactory working conditions.

c. Developing and using practical ways of review and appraisal on how well these things are being done and assisting in making necessary changes to correct deficiencies.

Some of the practical problems and techniques employed in working toward these goals are as follows:

1. Using written tests and oral interviews in selecting new employees.

2. Attracting well qualified students from colleges.

3. Testing new employees through probation period.

4. Constant review of job requirements and qualifications.

5. Developing programs for training effective supervisors.

   a. TAM Institutes and workshops
   b. Use of outside educational facilities.

6. Vigorous review and appraisal of personnel programs.

7. Delegation of authority and responsibility of personnel functions to operating agencies with a thorough review of operations primarily aimed at determining:

   a. Whether well-qualified employees are being appointed, satisfactory supervisory training is being given, what the condition of the employee moral is, and

   b. Whether the personnel function is serving top management in an effective and productive manner.

Progress is being made in the study of personnel management.

1. President's Committee to study Long Range Problems Affecting Scientific Personnel.

2. Cardiner Committee concerned with pay for scientists and engineers.

3. White House Office on Personnel Management directing attention to the total personnel problems.

4. Sub-Committee of the Cabinet to study pay scales generally for government workers.

Recommendations from these groups generally attempts to improve conditions along the following lines:

1. Aim to give greater flexibility in the matter of pay so as to make Federal employment more competitive with private pay rates and given administrators more flexibility in setting pay rates to overcome rigidity in present pay policies.

2. To remove limitations on the number of supergrades and to relieve the compression of grades just below the super grade level.

3. A continuous study and collection of wage and salary data from non-Federal employers in order to compare relationships with Federal salary schedules.

4. To give study and consideration to factors determining premium pay benefits such as health insurance, relocation expenses, attendance at professional society meetings, incentive awards and similar work benefits of this type.

5. To achieve more realistic qualifications standards and a refinement of the classification series.

6. Additional research into, and the development of techniques that will adequately measure the abilities and aptitudes of employees and applicants.

7. Permit the use of paid advertising, private employment placement agencies to recruit new workers in shortage categories without expense to workers and applicants.

8. Payment of travel and transportation costs to the first duty station and travel costs for interviews for applicants in shortage categories.

9. To develop programs to publicize all the scientific and engineering programs in the Federal Government directed to secondary schools, colleges and universities.

10. Development of standards and guidelines for utilization of professional people and plans for creation of favorable work environments.

11. Development of programs for training and study of government employees at outside training facilities.

DISCUSSION

Led by D. Smith, Forest Service

Basic questions raised during the discussion period brought out these major points.

1. What are the responsibilities of the line supervisor in personnel management and how are they related to the responsibilities of the personnel officer?

   Basically personnel responsibility rests with the head of the agency. Personnel officer has responsibility for classification and pay and assists line supervisor in carrying out the program.

2. How much time can an agency afford to put in on personnel training?

   Training is a beneficial investment which more than pays for itself. Training in a broad sense is continuous as long as we work.

3. What extent is aptitude testing and attitude testing used in making assignments of experienced government employees?

   Senority has place in management but should not be the only criteria. Ability must also be considered as well as other factors.

4. What are some of the uses and probable effects of automatic data processing systems in the field of personnel management?

   Need to explore possibility of personnel processing at higher centralized levels and decentralizing classification to lower levels. New systems open up many new possibilities in field of personnel management.

REFERENCES

Nicol, Eric A., The Role of the Personnel Director in Management. Address given before the Civil Service Assembly of U.S., Oct. 1, 1940.

Dooher, M. J. and Marting, B., Eds., Selection of Management Personnel. New York, American Management Association, c1957, 2v.

Perspectives in Public Personnel Administration, a collection of essays. Public Personnel Review 17, 176-331, Oct. 1956.

Stahl, O. G., Public Personnel Administration, Ed. 4. New York, Harper, c1956, 628 p.

U. S. Civil Service Commission, Evaluating Your Personnel Management. U.S. Civil Service Commission Personnel Management, Ser. 6, 88 p., Oct. 1954.

Appley, L. A., Essentials of a Management Personnel Policy. Personnel 23(5), 430-436, May 1947. Also reprinted in Readings in Personnel Administration, edited by P. Pigors and C. A. Myers. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1952. p. 85-92.

Pigors, P. and Pigors, F., Who Should Make Personnel Policies? Personnel 27(3), 176-189, Nov. 1950. Also reprinted in Readings in Personnel Administration, edited by P. Pigors and C. A. Myers. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1952, P. 92-109.

American Assembly, The Federal Gov't Service; Its Character, Prestige, and Problems. Final Ed. New York, Columbia University, Graduate School of Business, 1954, 189 pp. Prepared under direction of Dr. Wallace Sayre.

Lynch, Edith, The Personnel Man and His Job. An AMA survey. Personnel, May 1956 - Reprint.

THE HUMAN SIDE OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

By

James F. Musser

Mr. Musser is supervisor of Employee Testing, Trans-World Airlines, Kansas City, Missouri. He attended the University of Oklahoma, graduating with an A.B. degree in psychology in 1940. During World War II he served in the U.S. Air Force as a bomber pilot. After the war he returned to the University of Oklahoma and took graduate work in clinical psychology. In 1948 he went to work for Trans-World Airlines Inc. This is the second TAM Institute in which Mr. Musser has participated.

SUMMARIZED BY CHARLES H. BUELL, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE AND R.A. RALSTON, FOREST SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Why People Act As They Do

1. Men and Machines

   a. Men are often compared to machines. Despite resemblances men are not machines. The differences are:

      (1) Humans are self-actuating organisms and never stop operating until they are dead.

      (2) Machines will operate the same way as long as certain basic factors remain constant such as fuel, maintenance and workload.

      (3) Machines are far more predictable.

      (4) Machines come equipped with a book of instructions on how to operate and repair them. "New employees, however, do not come to us so equipped."

   b. Supervisors spend hours and money getting a machine to operate properly but may not spend 10 minutes in helping a new employee.

   c. As machines have operating instructions, so should we develop standards and guidelines to handle people.

2. Human Behavior Is Not Mysterious

a. Human behavior results in the need to satisfy the basic drives found in all of us. These basic drives are:

(1) Hunger
(2) Thirst
(3) Self-preservation
(4) Self-perpetuation

b. In management we are interested in those drives that are usually in evidence in a work situation. Of the four listed, self-preservation weighs heaviest. It includes:

(1) Preservation of the organism-freedom from bodily harm.

(2) Preservation of self-esteem, dignity, ego, and ideas which are the most important in a work situation.

(a) Self-esteem is what we think of ourselves and what we want others to think of us.

(b) We want people to respect our individuality.

(c) Self-esteem monitors our behavior and causes us to believe in a way that is meaningful to us.

3. Why Do People Behave Differently?

a. Since all people have the same basic drives, they act differently because of:

(1) Environment
(2) Experience
(3) Education
(4) Health
(5) Physical condition
(6) Finances

b. Differences in the degree of present needs determine the action taken by a person at a given time.

(1) In the time of a emergency, the action taken by an individual depends upon which of the basic drives dominates.

(2) Our attempt to satisfy our basic drives or needs produces what we call behavior.

(3) The behavior of a human is not a set pattern, but rather a dynamic changing thing arising out of the satisfaction or attempt to satisfy the dominant need of a particular time.

c. People behave as they do because they feel it is to their advantage at the time of the act. For example, when society imposes regulations on us which conflict with our basic drives, they will be disregarded by a majority of people.

d. The difference in behavior of an individual can be a result of a change of need from within, or a change they perceive in their environment. Behavior can change from day to day.

e. Attitudes of a person developed during childhood toward parents, teacher, and others can effect attitudes of an individual toward supervisors insofar as the latter has traits that remind the person of childhood experiences. These can be favorable or unfavorable.

4. You Do Not Change People, They Change Themselves

a. Man must want to change himself. An employee can be helped to see that he needs to change his attitudes or habits and to recognize the benefits.

b. Reasons for change:

(1) Personnel problems of individuals may be due to lack of understanding and proper instructions.

(2) Mishandling by the supervisor may injure employee's dignity, ego, or security and will precipitate behavior designed to offset or restore that loss in the eyes of the employee.

(3) Supervisors should evaluate and study reasons why employee was motivated into undesirable behavior before attempting to correct it.

(4) After complete study has been made, then proper methods can be applied to correct and help. They must be carried out in such a manner as not to cause a threat to the employee's self-esteem.

5. Supervisors Also Have Self-Esteem

a. Injuries to self-esteem of supervisors arise from many causes, such as:

(1) No merit increase. Top of grade and no chance for advancement.

(2) Someone promoted over him.

(3) Reprimands about his work.

(4) Improvement suggestions ignored or turned down by higher authority.

b. How might the supervisor behave?

(1) Criticise the boss or company, either openly or in private and thus causes distrust among those under him, slows down work through general lack of interest, takes out resentment on employees under him.

These reactions must be avoided. They lower morale and production. Since it is the responsibility of the supervisor to maintain stability and security in order to get the job done efficiently, he must understand the importance of self-esteem to himself and employee.

6. Different Behavior Patterns Employed By People To Achieve Security (Self-Esteem)

a. All employees desire attention and achieve security or self-esteem in many ways.

b. Four types of behavior patterns:

(1) Dominant Type (Is only happy when others are on the defence)

(a) Argumentative
(b) Easily angered
(c) Uncooperative with equals
(d) Servile toward superiors
(e) Arrogant towards equals or inferiors
(f) Distorts a problem by only seeing one part

(2) Non-Conformist Type (The attention seeker or the office cut-up)

(a) Unusual mannerisms. Different in dress or actions.

(b) Horseplay

(c) Griping, dissatisfaction

(d) Creates all kinds of excuses to talk to the boss.

(e) Not stable or dependable, especially if assignments will not draw attention.

(3) Perfectionist Type (Can't get out work under pressure)

(a) Doesn't care to share his tools or equipment

(b) Must have everything in order before he starts work

(c) Is impatient with others

(d) Very serious. Lacks humor. Unhappy about the world.

(e) Has to have a clean uniform every day and complains if it is torn.

(f) Personal cleanliness paramount

(g) Avoids making decisions whenever possible (Decisions only according to the book, abhors being wrong).

(4) Action Type (Busy but not productive)

(a) Optimistic

(b) Makes promises he can't fill

(c) Club joiner, part time athlete

(d) Quick decisions, even when not competent

(e) No self-evaluation. Does not recognize his own mistakes.

(f) Well liked by casual acquaintances

(g) Lacks ability to plan

(h) Lacks foresight, only sees today.

7. Group Behavior

a. People behave differently in groups than as individuals.

b. The will of the group will override the will of the individual.

c. Characteristics of group behavior:

(1) Needs leadership to keep it united

(2) May be impulsive, irritable
(3) Swayed by emotion, not logic
(4) Accepts rumors as truth
(5) Wants recognition, goals, and objectives
(6) Wants to know what things will affect it and what is expected of it.
(7) More difficult to obtain morale.

8. Leadership and People

a. Individuals and groups require leadership.

b. People follow leaders because:

(1) Easier to be a follower. No need to think, plan and manage.

(2) Often more economical. One central command.

(3) Non-conformity may be punished. Fear of public opinion

(4) Self-esteem enhanced by being a part of a successful group

(5) Conformity in group action is an accepted or custom of living in our society.

c. A good leader must be able to sense what is going on at any given time and in the direction it is going and be able to change course if necessary.

d. A good leader must not only be a part of a group but apart from it. He may be by title, knowledge, uniform or position, in line of command. He cannot be one of the boys.

e. A level head is one of the best assets to a supervisor.

f. Leadership, like salesmanship, is an acquired skill. Leaders are made - not born.

DISCUSSION

Led by B. H. Johnson, Federal Crop Insurance Corporation

A film "The Inner Man Steps Out" produced by the General Electric Company was shown to illustrate the inner conflicts of a supervisor which, once resolved, made his job more pleasant and effective. Other characters in the picture illustrated different extreme behavior patterns.

Mr. Musser's talk was spiced by the use of many examples and cases. He is an extremely good speaker with a sense of humor.

Some of the points which were brought out during his talk from questions and during the discussion period were:

1. Everyone has two paychecks, one money, the other personal satisfaction.

2. Two children from the same family even identical twins behave differently because the environment under which they grow up is different because of such things as the attitude of parents to a child, the attitude of a child to the parent and many other causes that can effect individuals in a family group.

3. Group behavior is more illogical than individual behavior.

4. All personnel problems aren't necessarily in Government. Industry has plenty to contend with.

5. Attitude surveys are helpful when conducted objectively. They should be handled on anonymous basis and action should be taken as soon after the survey is made to be most effective.

6. The supervisor should sense the pulse of the group in his organization and take action so as not to build up resistance, but rather to obtain acceptance of ideas.

7. The laying of adequate ground work preliminary to making major changes is fundamental in employee supervisor relationships.

8. Any time the group rejects the appointed leader they will select a natural leader from among their group and the appointed leader becomes a non-entity.

9. The mature individual is essentially unselfish - he cannot be childish and selfish and still be a leader.

REFERENCES

Dubin, R. ED., Human Relations in Administration, the sociology of organization. New York, Prentice-Hall, 1951, 573 pages.

Gardner, B.B. and Moore, D.G., Human Relations in Industry, Rev. Edition, Chicago, Irwin, 1950 431 pages.

Maier, N.R.F., Principles of Human Relations, applications to management. New York, Wiley 1952, 474 pages.

Roethlisberger, F.J., Management and Morale. Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1953, 194 pages.

Whyte, W.F., Human Relations Theory, a progress report. Harvard Business Rev. 34(5), 125-132, Sept. and Oct. 1956.

Roethlisberger, F.J., Training Supervisors in Human Relations. Harvard Business Rev. 29(5), 47-57, Sept. 1951.

THE GROUP PROCESS IN ADMINISTRATION

By

Dr. George A. Warp

Dr. Warp in associate professor of Political Science at the University of Minnesota, a position he has held since 1948. He is also associate Director of Public Administration Center and director of the Korean Program in Public Administration University of Minnesota. He is a graduate of Oberlin College and holds graduate degrees from Western Reserve University and from Columbia University. He is a member of the Virginia State Bar having received a law degree from Western Reserve University. He has served as technical advisor to the United Nations in Korea and Argentina and as legal advisor to Civil Information and Education Section and Deputy Chief of Relations and Cultural Resources Division, General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers, Japan.

SUMMARIZED BY H. HALVERSON, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE AND R. JOKINEN, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

1. Organization - People Working Together

   a. The social behavior of people working together affects organizational arrangements.

   b. Little systematic theory available.

2. Basic Concepts

   a. Large scale organization is composed of many different groups of formally organized people.

   b. No standard definition of size or place.

   c. Human beings are disposed to cooperate - to work together; man is a social being.

3. Conditions of Cooperative Group Relationships

   a. Group solidarity

   b. Common purpose towards a worthwhile goal

   c. Stability

   d. Willingness to cooperate - requires a system of reward

4. Group Responses Found in Most Working Groups

a. Sociability - Most people like to work in groups and place intrinsic value on the satisfaction of working together.

b. Restrictions on output:

(1) A fair day's work established by the group

(2) Those who violate standards are disciplined

(3) A minimum as well as maximum standards

c. Status of members of group - determined by group based on seniority, skills, etc.

(1) Members reward those who possess the valued qualities

(2) They expect symbols of status to be distributed accordingly - such as work locations, new equipment, etc.

d. Standards of work - developed and enforced from outside the organization.

e. Social goals - groups are strongly motivated by social values which they believe they are promoting.

(1) Resistance to efforts to compromise these values or change them.

(2) Especially sensitive to program decisions

f. Values relating to organization structure and status

(1) Lines of authority or organization are a sensitive zone

(2) Changes in formal lines of authority do not necessarily bring about any real changes in behavior.

(3) Desired changes must be planned to gain popular acceptance.

(4) Organizational change which reduces status of group will be opposed.

(5) Prestige is related to status and organizational changes should enhance prestige.

g. Struggle for power - decisions which give preference to one person or group over another will be resented by those who think they have been placed at a disadvantage.

5. Strategy for Organizational Change

a. Crises - change can be made quite easily at this time but these situations do not happen often enough.

b. Consent - slow process by piece meal or gradual change but education necessary so that group values will not be destroyed.

6. Conferences and Committees

a. Types of conferences:

(1) Staff - administrator and his top management personnel

(2) Operating - top operating officials

b. Characteristics of Conferences:

(1) Informal - no fixed participation and meet at irregular intervals.

(2) Formal - fixed membership and some regularity as to time of meeting.

c. Aspects of decision making:

(1) Awareness of problem

(a) Conference members may bring up grievances

(b) Observation of interpersonal relations among staff

(2) Problem solving - conference brings together people who may help executive solve a problem

(3) Acceptance and execution - conference helpful in getting acceptance and understanding by arousing motivation to secure execution of a decision

d. Rules for conducting a successful conference:

(1) Carefully managed

(a) Keep discussion on subject

(b) Leader should not dominate meeting

(c) Sense when agreement is reached

(d) Must be decisive as to course of action

(2) Competent secretariat to arrange details, record agreements, and follow-up on necessary action

(3) Agenda prepared in advance with documentary material distributed, if necessary.

(4) Minutes distributed afterward

e. Participation:

(1) Generally limited to less than 20 persons

(2) In formal general conferences, more people can participate but discussions are then formalized into speeches.

f. Functions of staff meetings:

(1) Very effective, if properly conducted, it can do more to develop team spirit than any other single device

(2) Key is presiding officer:

(a) Test of a good executive is ability to run staff meeting

(b) Should make his own decision

(c) Should lead members through same intellectual processes

(3) Decisions are easier to enforce when people have part in making decision.

7. Principles of Group Dynamics

a. Participation - let everyone concerned get into the act

b. Group energy - find ways to release reserves of energy that are created from interaction of groups

c. Clearing communication lines - find improved methods to span the chasm between in-groups and out-groups.

d. Facts first - use data instead of emotions which varies inversely with knowledge.

e. Security and adjustment - agreement is easiest when participants are secure and have a sense of belonging.

8. Committee Functions and Organization

a. Minimum number of standing committees should be appointed.

b. Special committees should have a fixed life for a specific need.

c. Situated at all levels of organization.

d. Larger and more complex organizations need more committees.

e. Shortcomings:

(1) Multiply too rapidly - consider use of existing committees or whether committee is necessary

(2) Tend to bog down - precise instructions should be given as to purpose

(3) Not self-terminating - can be abolished only by officials that create them

(4) Key men become overloaded with committee work -avoid appointing same persons to a large number of committees

9. Tending of Institute for Social Research at University of Michigan

a. The closer or more exact the degree of supervision, the lower the level of output and, conversely, the more general the supervision the higher the level of output.

b. Supervisor tends to exercise the kind of supervision to which he is subject.

c. Employee-centered supervisor tends to have a higher production group.

d. Supervisors of groups with high production tend to spend more time on supervisory duties and less time on direct production.

e. Supervisors of groups with high production tend to encourage group participation in considering common tasks.

f. Supervisors of groups with high production have programs of training for advancement.

DISCUSSION

The group discussion led by D. Williams, Cooperative Extension Service developed the following points:

1. Leaders must be sensitive to group reaction to determine opinion or decision and to lead discussion.

2. Restating problem usually overcomes a period of lull in conference.

3. No objection to members of groups to join socially - frequently takes place naturally.

4. Committees should be of same level of management but groups from all levels may be brought in if they are directly concerned or for better cross-section of opinion.

5. Purpose of committee is to present ideas and solve problems.

6. Good communication required as to reasons for vetoing committee recommendations or resubmission for reconsideration with additional information.

7. Large field organizations find conferences very desirable for coordination and two way communication.

8. Agenda not always necessary for informal meetings but generally aids in making conference successful.

9. Use of committees is extensive in complex organizations and making public policy decisions in government.

10. Use of committees is a part of democratic concept of organization.

11. Committee process should be used at all levels of decision making and decision should ordinarily be better if done through conference.

12. Results of Conference action should be selected and made available to a lower unit if of special interest to that unit - maybe done through another conference at lower level.

REFERENCES

Barnard, C. I., Functions of the Executive. Cambridge Harvard University Press 1945, Pg. 334

Kriesberg, M. and Guetzkow, H., The use of Conferences in the Administrative Process. Public Admin. Rev. 10(2), 93-98. Spring 1950.

Whyte, Wm. H., "The Organization Man"

Simon, H. S., Smithburg, D. W., and Thompson, V. A., Public Administration. New York, Knopf, 1950 582 p. Building blocks of organization, Groups, Pg. 92-129

MANAGEMENT IN A FIELD OFFICE

By

E. J. Bjorklund

Mr. Bjorklund is Deputy State Conservationist, Soil Conservation Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture in South Dakota. He joined the staff of SCS in 1935 and served in various capacities in South Dakota and Nebraska. He received his degree in Civil Engineering from South Dakota State College in 1930, and is a charter member of the Soil Conservation Society of America and a member of the American Society for Public Administration.

SUMMARIZED BY BRUCE J. LIMOZAINE, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE AND BERTRAM H. JOHNSON, FEDERAL CROP INSURANCE CORPORATION

DIGEST OF TALK

For the purposes of this discussion, Mr. Bjorklund used as a typical example the managerial problems confronting a work unit office of the SCS although these same principles would generally be applicable to other USDA agencies that operate field offices.

The three basic management functions of a field office are:

1. Program Planning

   a. Objectives - Total job of the agency

   b. Determining the annual workload - That part of the total agency objective scheduled by the field office during the current year.

   c. Inventorying the available resources - Personnel, funds, materials and equipment available to do the job.

   d. Making the work estimate and setting up realistic goals - This involves: (1) the analysis of program objectives, (2) establishment of work priorities and (3) the making of necessary adjustments to accommodate those specific kinds and amounts of work which can be performed by the field office in the year ahead.

   e. Annual plan of operations - This is a plan of action for accomplishing goals and objectives. It deals in detail with the jobs to be accomplished and who will do them.

2. Program Execution

   a. Work organization and scheduling - This is the advance preparation of detailed schedules for carrying out the plans.

b. Direct supervision - This is the observing of performance and analyzing it, reaching an agreement for any needed improvement and making follow-up observations to determine whether improvements are being used effectively.

3. Controlling the operation -

a. Methods of control - This control is exercised through the review and study of the records and reports and inspection process, to determine when and how to apply action to remedy or improve situations needing treatment.

b. Improving operations - Based on the results of the work done in controlling the operations, studies or analyses of the way operations are carried out become a necessity to the manager of a field office. These studies should then result in definite improvements in methods, procedures and techniques in order to save time and thus reduce costs and increase total output of units of work.

TRAINING OF PERSONNEL - Any manager must recognize the importance and responsibility of training personnel. He must understand effective training methods to meet the needs of on-the-job training in addition to motivating an employee self-improvement program.

KEEPING THE PUBLIC INFORMED - Informing the public of the program and accomplishments is an essential function to be performed by the manager of the field unit. The local people in his town and the adjacent rural population are anxious to know what he and his staff do and what phase of the whole agricultural program they are responsible for.

COOPERATIVE RELATIONS - Cooperative relations with all the agencies and groups working at the field level on the various agricultural programs are essential in management. Also, a manager needs to have an understanding of the basic principles and many details regarding the programs of the other agencies, and how they relate to the program of his own agency. With this understanding the manager is in a position to seek cooperative assistance from the others and likewise extend his so that the total program of the USDA will benefit.

DISCUSSION

Led by Gerald A. Simpson, Soil Conservation Service

Following Mr. Bjorklund's presentation, an active discussion was held wherein the seven basic principles of management were explained in detail and specific examples of their application given to actual field office situations. These principles are:

Program planning
Work scheduling
Analyses of records and reports
Studies to improve operations
Employee training programs
Public relations
Maintaining good cooperative relations with other agencies and groups having a common interest

REFERENCES

Bulchis, R. A., A Junior Management Development Program in the Federal Field Service Public Personnel Rev., 14(4), 171-177, Oct. 1953

Gore, W. J., Administrative Decision-Making in Federal Field Offices Public Admin. Review 16, 281-291, 1956

U.S.D.A., Graduate School, Washington-Field Relationship in the Federal Service. Lectures and papers, Washington, 1942, GPO

U.S.D.A., Guide Posts for Supervisors

U.S.D.A., Management Bulletin No. 1, "Essentials of Good Management."

DEVELOPMENT OF ASSISTANTS - TRAINING
(Including the Development of Junior Executives)

By

John W. Godbold

Mr. Godbold is Director of the Ninth U. S. Civil Service Region, St. Louis, Missouri. From the beginning of his government career in 1939, when he became associated with the National Youth Administration, he has held progressively important posts in the personnel field. He has a B. A. degree from Millsay College of Jackson, Mississippi, and has also attended the University of Chicago. He is presently studying at St. Louis University (evening classes) working on a Master's degree in public administration.

SUMMARIZED BY WINTON G. EVANS, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE
AND PAUL J. HENNIG, JR., SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Twenty five years ago this nation had a manpower surplus; now this situation has reversed itself. Presently, the one short element in operations is skilled manpower. This shortage is not likely to change in our lifetime.

In employee development our objective is to manage our people better, or to develop our people so that we can do a better job.

There are a few things which inhibit successful employee development programs:

1. The inability to plan or failure to plan so that we build people to fill special jobs.

2. Failure in recruitment

   An agency's employee development program will succeed only if there is an adequate supply of people of high potential who have the capability of utilizing the development opportunities offered to them.

3. Failure to budget.

   a. Failure to budget properly to recruit top caliber people

   b. Failure to set aside funds for training in employee development.

4. Lack of Top Support - failure to look ahead.

   The manager faced with today's urgent problems is tempted to feel that tomorrow's manpower should be the problem of tomorrow's managers.

Principles of our employee development program:

1. Line responsibility

   Aggressive leadership comes from line management with strong top management support.

2. Individually centered development.

   The organization's responsibility for providing development opportunities and the individual's responsibility for self-development.

3. Appraisal as a preliminary phase.

   The first step in improvement is the realization of deficiencies.

4. Separation of development from promotion.

   Most successful programs concentrate on developing the employee for better performance in his present job.

5. Decentralization

   Most successful programs recognize the necessity of tailoring the program to meet local operating needs.

An organization cannot develop a person. It can only provide a setting in which development may take place. We must consider management climate. A favorable climate for self development is compounded of honesty, objectivity, participation, challenging assignments, and tough performance standards.

Once the proper management climate has been established, a number of techniques for development may be used.

1. Put people on their own. Decentralize operations.

2. Coach employees on the job.

3. Provide incentives.

4. Let the individual carry the ball.

5. Develop and sustain pride in work, pride in organization and pride in the whole federal service.

In summary, employee development is a prime responsibility of every manager. In considering employee development, we must guard against the pitfalls of failure to plan, failure to recruit properly, failure to budget, and failure to get top management support. Almost all employee development is self-development. Management creates the climate. Management encourages. Management persuades. But almost all development is self-development. Self-development can be attained by delegating increased responsibility, coaching employees, providing incentives, giving practice in decision making, and instilling pride in a job well done.

DISCUSSION

Led by James T. Morgan, Forest Service

The following questions were raised and discussed by the group and Mr. Godbold:

1. What are some agencies doing in the field of developing assistants?

   a. ARS explained its employee testing program for veterinarians. A good program which met many, it not all, the principles set forth in Mr. Godbold's talk.

   b. CSS presented problem in non-professional organization. Godbold suggested setting aside some GS-5 and GS-7 positions and filling them with college graduates.

   c. Exten. told about its summer institutes; university sabatical leave; etc.

   d. SCS elaborated on the Student Training Program. The responsibility of providing actual training in this program was emphasized.

2. A void exists in training administrative officers. Also difficulty is experienced in transferring qualified persons. A partial solution to this lies in re-location expense legislation and a proposal to grant a minimum salary increase of two within-grade steps on promotions.

3. Cross-training assignments. Some agencies are encouraging this training technique but it often results in a temporary loss of minimum efficiency.

4. The "Generalist" as versus the "Specialist" was discussed. It was agreed at this stage that it was important to train our technical people to be managers. However, in many instances outstanding administrators are proving they can administer a shop for which they are not professionally trained.

5. Budgeting for training institutes. Legislation in many instances

prevents proper treatment of our training needs. Suggested, if we are sold on the need for broader legislation that we emphasize our need with our budgetary presentations.

6. Records were described and discussed which would assist, in a simple manner, to encourage progressive training.

REFERENCES

Dooher, M.J., and Marquis, V. eds. The development of executive talent. A handbook of management development techniques and case studies. New York, American Management Association, 1952 576 p.

Mace, M.L. The Growth and Development of Executives. Harvard University, Graduate School of Business Administration, 1950 200 p.

Planty, E.G., and Freeston, J.T. Developing management ability; 600 questions and answers. New York, Ronald Press, 1954 447 p. Ref.

Riegel, J.W., Executive development. Ann Arbor University of Michigan Press, 1952, 369 p.

Bennett, W.E., Master plan for management development. Harvard Business Rev. 34(3): 71-84. May-June, 1956.

Maguire, D., Essential elements of an effective over all training program. Public Personnel Rev. 13(3): 110-116. July 1952.

COMMUNITY RELATIONS

By

Dr. William W. Biddle

Dr. Biddle is Director, Program of Community Dynamics, Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana. He has taught psychology and education at several colleges and universities. His chief interest has been in generating community development through self-help. He is recognized as a leader in the field and has carried through a number of projects involving stimulating communities to improve their living through cooperation in the democratic process. He holds the B. A. degree in Psychology and Philosophy from Pomona College and the M. A. and Ph. D. degrees in Social Educational Psychology from Columbia University.

SUMMARIZED BY GERALD A. SIMPSON, SOIL CONSERVATION SERVICE AND JAMES T. MORGAN, FOREST SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Dr. Biddle led into the subject of community development by describing several projects which he personally directed. He emphasized the following points:

1. Community development projects are pointed at impelling people to help themselves. This concept is opposed to the idea that experts should decide what is best to do and then go out and persuade the people to do it. In practice the method is one of finding out what people think should be done, helping them to try to do it, evaluating the results, then going on to another phase of the project. Eventually good sense will prevail and local leaders will come up with the most worthwhile projects.

2. Projects are begun only at the request of someone in the locality. These requests are sometimes "planted" where the project leaders wish to work in a particular problem area. However, projects would probably not be started in the face of concerted local opposition.

3. The work of generating self-help projects is very subtle and indirect. Formal meetings, classes, "courses", and specific directions are avoided. The ideas and work suggestions must usually come from local people.

4. The projects are not subsidized except to the extent of the salaries of Dr. Biddle's team. No money is put into the development process except that which is raised by local people.

5. The projects enlist the interest, support, and active work of all the people in the community, not any special class. Wealthy, influential people are enlisted as well as needy people. In general, the appeal is made, indirectly of course, to the generous side of each person's nature, with immediate economic advantage soft-pedalled.

6. Areas for projects are sometimes difficult to define. Old communities and "trade-areas" change, the communities are no longer there, psychologically. People are more mobile than they used to be, operate in several communities.
   Project leaders now try to concentrate on geographic or cultural entities.

7. Resistance to change is not always based on ignorance. People know that they are not doing as well as they could. This knowledge, and the knowledge that other people (i.e., the project leaders) know that they are not doing well, leads to resentment and fear of criticism. Suggestions have to come voluntarily - not be imposed from "outside."

As an example of an area presenting a problem in community development Dr. Biddle cited a farming area in Pennsylvania. Wheat was the traditional crop but dairying was becoming the money-maker. Still the farmers raised wheat and sold it for cash with which they bought cattle feed. The problem was how to get the people to raise alfalfa or other feed that could be feed directly to the cattle. This situation posed these questions:

1. How do people change to accept economics facts? In some societies they are forced to change but not in ours. How do they do it democratically?

2. How do people change themselves? What processes are involved?

3. How do they want to change?

The actual application of the community development approach was then described by Dr. Biddle through two examples:

1. A group inhabiting a remote area in the mountains of Puerto Rico. The following adverse conditions prevailed:

   a. No transportation facilities to the outside.

   b. Low level of subsistence farming.

   c. No sanitation (soil and water polluted).

   d. No schools

   e. No churches

f. Poor nutrition

g. No experience of inhabitants in self help. Had always depended on government relief.

The project leaders from Earlham College were invited to try to get the people to help themselves out of their rut. It took four years to get the show on the road in good shape.

The point of attack was to find out what the people thought was the first priority project. This turned out to be an auto road out of the valley. With the road built, after two years of cooperative effort, products could be taken to market and new ideas could be carried in. Average family income rose, sanitation facilities were installed, and a new community loyalty was established as a result of working together.

The second example was:

2. A hilly area in southeastern Indiana. The timber had been cut off years ago and a corn-hog farming economy grew up until soil depletion and erosion made it unprofitable. Most of the inhabitants worked off the farm in factory jobs.

In this case, the question "What to do first?" elicited the answer that the people wanted to fix up two run-down parks. Although this didn't seem to be the basic problem, the project leaders helped the local people organize to do it. Through this experience it developed that what the people really wanted was a new school but they were afraid they couldn't finance it. Through experience in group effort on rehabilitating the parks, the people gained confidence and experience enough to tackle the school building successfully.

But the school was still not the basic issue. To have a healthy community a land use adjustment was necessary. Still, side issues were tackled first, such as a group approach to the eradication of brucellosis in cattle. Finally, with assistance of the SCS and the State Forester, a start was made on buying up hill farm lands and planting them to trees. From this there grew a community realization that crop land should be confined to level, valley-bottom areas.

DISCUSSION

Led by Roland Abraham, Extension Service

The following points were brought out by group discussion with Dr. Biddle:

1. The role of the community educator as liaison individual between rural people and specialists is a new concept. It offers "grass roots" development to enable the people to make better use of specialist help and other program assistance.

2. It is not presently known whether the community approach can be applied to a county or a large watershed. Dr. Biddle feels that action should be first on the community area and expanded by communities to cover these larger units.

3. Natural leaders do evolve.

4. The community educator must have faith:

   a. In people.

   b. In democratic processes.

5. The following operational guides must be assumed by the skillful community-educator:

   a. That normal adults are capable of rational decisions.

   b. These qualities can be stimulated most effectively when people come together in groups. The "town-hall" type meeting.

   c. The best group is a local community which is meaningful to its citizens. Concern about progress, often involving the welfare of its children, starts cooperation for growth and keeps it going.

   d. That the most important learnings (growth) come as a result not of teacher-telling, but of learner-discovering.

   e. The group should be all inclusive of community interests.

   f. That as a result of thinking and working together, ordinary citizens will themselves eventually arrive at good solutions.

   g. That development of the individual comes through stimulation of community developments.

   h. That peope possess better motivations and more useful intelligence than they exhibit at one time. Firm convictions on this point by the educator tends to increase better performance.

   i. That initial failure is highly probable. Apathy and discouragement are overcome by restudy or by working out alternate actions.

   j. That people can become more competent to solve more and more difficult problems.

REFERENCES

Biddle, W. W. Adult Development, Some Guidelines for Community Educators, Earlham College Bulletin

Biddle, W. W. The Cultivation of Community Leaders, Harpers, 1953

Biddle, W. W. Growth Toward Freedom, Harpers, 1957

Gee, W. The Social Economics of Agriculture, Ed. 3, New York, Macmillan, 1954

Hayes, W. J. The Small Community Looks Ahead, New York, Harcourt Brace, 1947

Hitch, E. V. Rebuilding Rural America: New Designs for Community Life, New York, Harper, 1950

Hoiberg, O. G. Exploring the Small Community. Lincoln, University of Nebraska Press, 1955

Kreitlow, B. W. Rural Education; Community Backgrounds. New York, Harper, 1954

Landis, P. H. Rural Life in Process. Ed. 2, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1948

Lewin, Kurt Resolving Social Conflicts

Lippitt, Ronald Training in Community Relations, Harpers

Loomis, C. P. & Beegle, J. A. Rural Social Systems; A Textbook in Rural Sociology and Anthropology. Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall, 1950

Melby, E. O. Administering Community Education

Morgan, A. E. The Small Community; Foundation of Democratic Life; What It is and How to Achieve it. New York, Harper, 1942

Poston Small Community Renaissance

Poston Democracy is You

Sanders, Erwin Making Good Communities Better. University of Kentucky Press

THE SUPERVISOR'S ROLE IN MANAGEMENT

By

Harold C. Nygren

Mr. Nygren is Supervisor of the Upper Michigan National Forest with headquarters at Escanaba, Michigan. A graduate forester, Mr. Nygren has been active in the forestry field since his original technical assignments with the CCC program on the Manistee National Forest in 1936. He has held progressively responsible assignments in National Forest Administration in field offices, including the Milwaukee Regional Office. He was appointed to his present position in 1957.

SUMMARIZED BY H.G. HALVERSON, SCS, THIEF RIVER FALLS, MINNESOTA AND GORDON D. LOGAN, FOREST PRODUCTS LABORATORY, MADISON, WISCONSIN.

DIGEST OF TALK

By briefly explaining the organizational structure of a National Forest, Mr. Nygren described the relationship of the Forest Supervisor to the line and staff personnel of the forest and their related responsibilities. The talk was based upon those qualifications and supervisory responsibilities of a typical Forest Supervisor and Forest Ranger.

There are three primary and broad aspects of a supervisor's job:

1. Job Knowledge
2. Human Relations
3. Scientific Management

1. Job Knowledge is basic in that it requires that a supervisor be thoroughly grounded in the objectives and policies of the organization. This necessitates a good understanding of the over-all organization and specific knowledge as to how he fits into it. He must know the work he is to direct and the people through which it is to be accomplished. This makes it almost mandatory for the supervisor to have a full grasp of the subject field, preferably from direct experience in the work itself.

   Since he has both technical and administrative responsibilities it is necessary that the supervisor maintain a current knowledge of his field of work so that he can provide competent direction and sound technical advice to his subordinates.

2. Human Relations is the essence of the supervisor's job. Interest in people and a sincere and honest ability to understand them is a

prime requisite of the supervisor's position. This can be more a matter of attitude and approach than skill. The team approach is significant and the supervisor should be the respected leader, gaining status by his own performance.

A reliable attitude survey of factory workers in 24 plants produced the following results which show a wide disparity between how the worker and foreman evaluate employment conditions:

Worker's Rating	Foremen's Rating
1. Full appreciation for work done	8th
2. Feeling in on things	10th
3. Sympathetic help on personal problems	9th
4. Job Security	2nd
5. Good Wages	1st
6. Work that keeps you interested	5th
7. Promotion and growth in company	3rd
8. Personal loyalty to workers	6th
9. Good working conditions	4th
10. Tactful disciplining	7th

The supervisor's direct and personal responsibility to his people includes the following factors considered essential for high morale:

There should be friendly, skillful, and adequate introduction to the job.

Employees should know that their efforts are appreciated.

Feelings of employees should be respected.

All should be treated fairly and impartially.

Corrections should be made with fairness and consideration.

Employee should have a feeling of pride in the organization and worthwhileness of his work.

Working should be a satisfying social experience.

3. Scientific Management principles are essential to the effective supervision of others. These include:

a. The technique of effective organization and delegation, with exercise of the authorities delegated.

b. The techniques of direct supervision by:

(1) consultive, through conferences and discussions, both individual and group.

(2) autocratic - a strict reliance on orders.

(3) free reign - allowing for full delegation of authority and only general followup.

c. Coordination, through which every man is considered a significant link in the chain of operation.

d. Control - by review and inspection.

e. Training.

4. The outstanding supervisor is a leader who:

a. Can persuade others to contribute their maximum efforts

b. Recognizes the significance of good communications and the self expression of ideas and opinions

c. Explains decisions

d. Gets results by setting example of high performance and good attitude.

DISCUSSION

Led by J. Jackson, Forest Service

The following points were brought out during the discussion period:

1. Staff meetings are an important media for informing staff of new developments. Staff should be kept currently informed of all matters except those of strictly confidential nature.

2. We can expect to effect only minor changes in an employees attitude. Must learn to "live with" and get most out of problem employees. Diaries may be checked to determine if employee is utilizing time properly and is stressing important functions of his job.

3. Using the practice of complimenting an employee before criticizing an employee is a good practice if the praise is deserved.

4. To develop subordinates it is necessary to delegate authority and permit employee to act without interference. Errors must be pointed out to him.

5. The best trainer is one who is enthusiastic about his work, gets on well with people and is conducting a well balanced program.

6. The number of meetings of staff and field personnel necessary during a year depends upon the type of program the organization is administering.

REFERENCES

Hepner, N. W., "How to Live and Work Successfully with People in Business" Prentice and Hall, 1952

Halsey, G. D., Selecting and Developing First Line Supervisors, Harper, 1956, 203 p.

Koontz and O'Donnell, Principles of Management, McGraw-Hill, 1955, 652 p.

Toy, William, Elements of Administrative Management, Mimeograph, R-9 Forest Service

Guide Posts for Supervisors, USDA Office of Personnel, 1951

McCullough, Walter F., The Forester on the Job, Oregon State College Cooperative Ass'n., 1954, 155 p.

DeArmond, Fred, Executive Thinking and Action, McGraw-Hill, 1946, 244 p.

Kienzle & Dare, Climbing the Executive Ladder, McGraw-Hill

Pfiffner, J. M., The Supervision of Personnel, Prentice Hall, 1951, 454 p.

PUBLIC RELATIONS IN MANAGEMENT

By

Donald W. Conway

Mr. Conway is information manager in the Public Relations and Advertising Department of the Prudential Insurance Company's North Central home office in Minneapolis. From 1951 to 1953 he was an English instructor and director of Public Relations at the College of St. Thomas. He is a graduate of St. Thomas and later attended the University of Minnesota graduate school. He is a member of the Public Relations Society of America, the Citizens League of Minneapolis, and the St. Paul Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Conway has also been United Appeal Chairman for the 1956 Community Chest Drive in Minneapolis and is currently a division chairman of the American Red Cross drive.

SUMMARIZED BY HARRY KARASOV, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE
AND ROBERT E. JENSON, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Public relations has become an accepted part of most organization structures. Although there are many definitions of public relations the one Mr. Conway prefers is as follows "public relations is a planned program of policies and conduct that will build public confidence and increase public understanding." This definition stresses the objectives of any sound public relations program, a fuller public confidence in what we are doing and a better understanding of what we are trying to do.

The two most important words in the definition are "policies" and "conduct". "Policies" means the policies laid down by top management in its stewardship of the institution on whether it be a large corporation, a government office, or a social agency. "Conduct" means the conduct of everyone within the organization from top executive to janitor.

Public relations is a phase of management. Management and the public relations staff must work closely together for maximum effectiveness.

Executives should look to their public relations "experts" for suggestions and ideas on strategy and planning. Just as he relies on the advice of his lawyers, engineers, etc., the executive must be able to rely on the counsel given him by his public relations men. In carrying out s program of public relations he will give consideration to a number of points. Among these are:

1. Determining objectives. The responsibility here is to determine what attitudes of what publics the public relations program is directed toward.

2. Research. The purpose of research is to determine whether the goals set for the public relations program are attainable, and is so, through what means these goals can be attained.

3. Reorientation and modification of objectives. As a result of research we may have to modify or reorient the goals of our public relations program in accordance with demands of current situations.

4. Themes. Effective use of themes is basic to every successful public relations activity. They are designed to intensify favorable attitudes toward defined goals. Themes vary with the times. For example, in good times auto makers stress speed and luxury. During recessions, they stress long wear, miles per gallon, etc.

5. Organization. The public relations man must know from whom his authority comes and to whom he is responsible. He must know who determines policy and exactly what his own responsibility is.

6. Tactics. This is the method of carrying out the program of public relations. In order to tell your story to the broadest possible audience you must use all necessary communication media.

   Other tactics include contacts with influential group leaders and opinion makers. They include award ceremonies, meetings and conferences, open houses, etc.

7. Planning. Advance planning is a prerequisite for success. A check list prepared by the E. I. du Pont de Nemours Company is very useful. It is as follows:

   Section A

   1. What is the objective this project is designed to gain or approach? Is the objective sound and desirable?

   2. If the project succeeds, will it reach or approach the objective? Are there collateral advantages?

   3. Is the project feasible?

      a. Is it reasonable to expect it to succeed?
      b. Can it be done with existing personnel?
      c. Does it involve cooperation outside the department?

   4. Are there disadvantages to the project?

      a. Is it counter to sound public relations policy?
      b. Is it counter to government policy?
      c. Is the expense too high in relation to possible gain?
      d. Can it embarrass top management?

5. How much will it cost? Where is the money coming from?

6. In what ways can the project fail? What are the foreseeable difficulties?

7. What are the penalties of failure?

   a. Will it embarrass the department if it fails?
   b. Will it embarrass the committee if it fails?

   The answers to these questions should add up to the answer to the first question in

Section B

1. Why do it at all? Is it worth attempting?

2. Why do it now? Is there any reason for moving fast?

3. Why do it this way? Are there other methods of approach that promise more?

   If it passes all these tests, there are two further questions:

Section C

1. Who, if anybody, outside the department must approve the project?

2. Who, if anybody, outside the department must be informed?

A major difficulty today is identifying the publics concern with the work of any agency. It's easy to talk about the general public, but most people will agree that except on election day, the general public really does not exist. At least it doesn't exist in any cohesive, organized, identifiable sense.

The interest of these publics or groups is very broad. John D. Millet in "Management in the Public Service" suggests the public is most interested in five areas of public service public relations. These five areas are:

1. Knowing about major policies that management adopts for its guidance.

2. The public must be reassured about the competence and efficiency with which the work of administration is performed.

3. The public seeks an understanding of the objectives of administration activity, or of benefits that may be available, or of procedures by which services are provided.

4. The public is concerned with the physical appearance of government structures and other facilities. Cleanliness and proper maintenance are quickly observed in public buildings, parks, and streets.

5. The public desires that contacts between citizens and officials should be friendly, helpful and productive of the desired service.

Job performance is not enough these days. A good job of reporting can do much to earn public support and public sentiment. And "Public Sentiment" as Abraham Lincoln once said, "is everything. With public sentiment, nothing can fail; without it, nothing can succeed."

Learn to work with the mass communication media. Assign a member of your staff as your public information assistant and work through him in all dealings with the news people.

A cardinal rule in dealing with the press is never to play favorites. If you have more than one paper, give your story to all of them at the same time with the same release date. The same applies to radio and television. Keep personalities out of dealings with the press. Do not ask for a story as a personal favor or on the basis of friendship alone.

One area of public relations receiving more attention these days is that of correspondence. In many cases correspondence is the only personal contact an individual may have with an agency. When that contact creates displeasure, or irritation, the cause of public relations is seriously jeopardized. In the correspondence improvement course offered by Prudential for its personnel, five characteristics of a good letter are stressed. They are:

1. Clarity; using language that is easily understood.

2. Conciseness; being as brief as you reasonably can.

3. Correctness; double-checking to make sure that the information you give is factual.

4. Completeness; giving all the information requested or needed.

5. Courtesy; using the same standards of polite conduct in letters as in spoken communication.

DISCUSSION

Led by Gordon F. Klenk, Farmers Home Administration

Mr. Conway emphasized that letters should be written in simple language. We increase our vocabulary not for the purpose of writing more difficult letters but rather so we can better understand what we read.

He discussed the denotative and connotative aspect of words. For example: Paris denotes one thing, connotes another. The term "home" is much more meaningful than "house".

Letters should be friendly as if you are talking to the person. Form letters are generally too cold and impersonal.

Mr. Conway related some of Prudential's public relations policies as well as describing personal experiences of his in this field.

THE ELECTRON AND YOU

By

C. L. Smith

Mr. Smith has been with Cargill for eleven years in Grain, Oil and Administrative Divisions. At present he is responsible for all methods and procedures in the company including electronics and integrated data processing. He graduated from the University of Minnesota with a major in Personnel Administration, and received his Masters Degree from the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration with a major in Accounting. He is a member of the National Association of Accountants, The System & Procedures Ass'n. and the Twin City Electronic Data Processing Associates. He now holds the position of Assistant Comptroller with Cargill, Incorporated.

SUMMARIZED BY J. A. JACKSON, FOREST SERVICE
AND R. ABRAHAM, EXTENSION SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

Mr. Smith reviewed the development of electronic computers during the past three years and their adoption by business. He also discussed the use of IBM equipment by his company, Cargill, over the past thirty years. It was brought out that in all areas of management responsibility the primary purpose of data collection and analysis is to provide management with the most current and pertinent operating data possible. Each unit should evaluate problems within its own sphere of activity and install electronic equipment only when it proves to be the most efficient and economical method of satisfying their resporting requirements.

One of the major factors in the use of the equipment is the development of a fully competent staff, which must be trained and organized. Physical space requirements must also be considered. All this preparation and planning costs a lot of money and needs the full support of top management.

After more than a year of study and planning, Cargill, incorporated placed an electronic computer into full operation. It is composed of five basic types of components: Input, Arithmetic, Storage, Control and Output. For every answer put out by the machine, the question has to be put in by people. Incorrect questions or data results in the making of mistakes faster than any means known to man. Efficient operation is therefore necessary for complete and correct results. The company now uses the computer on 45 separate programs which includes 40,000 instruction steps.

Experience of the company to date is better than anticipated and it is planned to expand the use of the machine into research and engineering jobs.

Conclusions arrived at as a result of the use of the computer by Cargill, Inc. are as follows:

1. Electronic equipment is more reliable than any other authomatic equipment heretofore available.

2. Additional by-product management data is available.

3. Computers are a useful tool in solution of research and engineering problems.

4. Considerable lead time is necessary for the installation of an electronic system.

5. Success is dependent upon top management support and a competent staff.

6. Major limitations are human.

In spite of the wondrous capabilities of electronic computers, it is still a fact that success or failure is determined by the personnel developing the system.

COMMUNICATIONS IN MANAGEMENT

By

Jerome W. Brower

Mr. Brower is Deputy Executive Officer, Minnesota Department of Health, St. Paul, Minnesota. He holds a M. A. degree in Public Administration from the University of Minnesota and a LL.B. degree from the St. Paul College of Law. His interesting career in public service includes nearly four years as a Special Agent, FBI during World War II, Service as Lecturer at Hamline University, St. Paul, and as Lecturer at the University of Minnesota. He is a Member, Minnesota Stace Bar Association, and is active in other professional and educational organizations.

SUMMARIZED BY LUDWIG J. EDSTROM, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE AND DAVID MESICK, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE

DIGEST OF TALK

1. "Communication" is the transfer by oral, written or other means, of information, from a transmitter to a receiver to evoke a response or reaction.

   a. Communication is realized "when there is a shared understanding of a shared purpose."

   b. "In the administration of Utopia, every communicator always says what he means and means what he says, and every communicatee always understands exactly what the communicator intended to convey."

2. Administrative Communication

   a. Purposes:

      (1) To communicate enough to make a team of the whole organization.

      (2) To get the word downward and out from the central office to the periphery of the organization.

      (3) To develop a way of working with people.

   b. The first executive function is to develop and maintain a system of communication.

      (1) A first requisite of the administrator is competence in communication.

      (2) Administration is a continuous round of written and verbal contact between workers and with outsiders.

c. Administrative communication is understood as these processes (for communicating) which are intended to apply primarily to persons who are members of that organization or subject to that organization's authority and control.

3. Management's growing concern with communication

a. Reasons for this growth:

(1) Increasing emphasis on the human factor in work relations.

(2) Development of "personnel office" with new skills and techniques in selection and promotion.

(3) Recognition of employee need for "job satisfaction."

b. Rise in paper work

(1) The shift from industrial emphasis on production to distribution brought the use of words into greater play.

(2) Words are the means by which ideas are conveyed in planning, promotion and other efforts.

c. Results of this interest

(1) Communication is now almost a discipline or organizational entity in itself.

(2) Reading, writing, speaking, and conference leadership are standard parts of current management-development programs.

4. Types of communication

a. Oral - involves personal or face-to-face conversation.

b. Written - circulars, bulletins, manuals, etc.; largely personal and formal.

c. Visual - symbolic - involves gestures, lights, etc.

d. Audio - visual - movies, slides, TV

e. Audile - telephone, buzzers, bells, etc.

f. Within the structure:

(1) Positional - chief clerk communicates with file clerk.

(2) Personal - Joe talks with Jim without reference to their respective positions.

(3) Vertical - up and down communication.

(4) Horizontal - across-the-chart communication.

5. The organization as a communications network

a. The organization chart depicts formal lines of authority and responsibility which show:

(1) Span of control.
(2) Spread of communication - who communicates with whom.

b. An organizational structure based on principle facilities communication

(1) Don't establish barriers by creating too many sub-units.
(2) Don't formalize structure in too fine detail.
(3) Decentralize wherever possible.

6. "Barriers", "bridges", "filters", and "gulfs" in communications

a. Requisites for free-flowing communication:

(1) Wholesome atmosphere within the organization.

(2) Harmonious superior - subordinate relationships

(3) Good timing in:

(a) Decision making with employee participation

(b) Action taking with employee cooperation

b. The "barriers" between agency levels - What cooperation exists? What information is exchanged? Who is permitted to communicate?

c. Over-communication - Is the volume needed? Can it be curtailed?

d. The mechanics of the system itself - Are all available means fully employed? Are there removable "filters"?

e. The "gulf" between what is said and done - Can there be consistency between pronouncements and action taken?

f. Professional societies - Is the "bridge" over which information passes between the specialist groups too narrow?

7. Upward communication - a major problem

a. To be effective, communication must move up, down and across freely

(1) But the manager talks and orders more than he lisens

(2) He must be open to receive information from all elements and groups of his organization.

b. Role of the "grapevine"

A rumor is an indication of a breakdown in communication.

c. Moving communications upward

(1) What should be communicated?

(a) Progress, or its lack, on projects
(b) Work completion
(c) "Boners" and deviations from approved plans
(d) Anticipated problems
(e) Feelings about the organization, about associates
(f) Ideas

(2) How to get information upward:

Reports, records, questionnaires

d. Effective upward communication:

(1) Enables management to ascertain whether downward communication is understood.

(2) Raises warning signals to management about likely failures or ineffectiveness of policy, programs, procedures, etc.

(3) Encourages lower echelon participation in planning and decision making.

8. Communication in staff activity

a. The line supervisor is main communication link with workers

(1) A barrier: failure or inability to listen to them
(2) Needs:

(a) Management personnel must establish an atmosphere of communication.

(b) Language must be kept clear and simple.

b. Know what people are expected to do:

(1) Job specifications
(2) Work assignments.

c. Know what they do - Charts can be designed to reflect the relation of each worker's tasks to the total work program of the unit.

d. Know how well they are expected to do individual tasks - performance standards.

9. Requisites for a good communications system:

a. It must have objectives:

(1) Advancement of agency programs
(2) Creation of a climate for proper development of

(a) Moral and
(b) Attitude

(3) The career development of personnel
(4) Maintenance of effective control

b. Organization philosophy must be sound

(1) It should have a planning base and be attuned to needs

(2) The management staff "does not manage to communicate but communicates to manage."

c. Responsibility for communication must be shared within the agency.

(1) Training may be needed - speed writing, writing of good English, conference leadership, etc. and

(2) For the receivers of communications - training in how to listen.

d. The organization must be organized for effective communication. This entails:

(1) Continuous appraisal of the system

(2) Location and correction of weaknesses

(3) The making of improvements as required. To effect this, a responsible person or a communications center or unit within the agency may be needed to have control and direction of all communication.

e. The system must be periodically appraised or audited - With well-defined goals this poses no difficulty, e.g. -

(1) Are wrong decisions being made because of poor policy or erroneous data?

(2) Are statements contradictory?

(3) Are there many gripes in the suggestion box?

(4) What comes up from the "grapevine" and how heavily is it being worked?

REFERENCES

Yoder, Dale, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations. Englewood Cliff, N. J., Prentice Hall, 1956

Barnard, Chester I., The Functions of the Executives. Harvard University Press, 1938, p. 226

Millett, John D., Pres., Miami University, at "Communication in Public Administration" Institute, Chicago, November 19, 1957

Redfield, Charles E., Communication in Management. University of Chicago Press, 1953, p. 26

Spence, Lewis, "Communications Training - A Neglected Approach", Personnel, Nov. - Dec., 1957, p. 65

Parsons, William W., Administrative Assistant Secretary, U.S. Dept. of the Treasury, at "Communication in Public Administration" Institute, Chicago, Nov. 18, 1957

SOCIAL ACTION 1/

By

C. O. Henderson

Mr. Henderson is Chief of the Division of Training and Employee Services, Office of Personnel, U.S. Department of Agriculture. He has served continually in the field of Agriculture and has been with the U.S. Department of Agriculture since 1938. He received a Master of Science from Cornell University in 1933.

PRESENTED BY WILLIAM F. MC PHERSON, COMMODITY STABILIZATION SERVICE AND SUMMARIZED BY EDWARD B. LIEBE, AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE AND HARRY KARASOV, AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE.

DIGEST OF TALK

All social action takes place in some sort of a social system, never in a vacuum. To understand social action, we must recognize that it takes place as a result of individual relationships, prejudices, biases, emotions, and desires which grow out of conditions. Also, we must be able to see the important parts of the over-all social system.

Social action programs follow a certain pattern down through the action stages. To start a program at the wrong stage or not to understand proper procedures can lead to failure and inefficiency.

The steps or phases which are usually considered in developing any program are:

1. The Social System

   a. All social action takes place within an existing social system. This may be the state, county, community, agency, office, etc.

   b. An understanding is essential to know what parts are important in developing the proposed social action program.

1/ An adaptation of Section 3 (Social Action), Unit 1, "Basic Communication Instructor Guide," Developed by Drs. Joseph M. Bohlen and G. M. Beal, Iowa State College, for the National Project on Agricultural Communication.

2. The Prior Social Situation

The prior experience, as well as the existing experience, will materially influence the proposed social action program.

3. What and Who Starts Social Action

All social action probably has its beginning because two or more people agree that a problem or situation exists and that something should be done about it. Those people who feel something should be done about the problem are the INITIATING SETS.

4. The Legitimation State

a. In almost every social system, there are people or groups that seem to have the right, authority, and prerogative to pass on things to make them legitimate ideas. These people are called "legitimizers."

b. In most cases there are two kinds of legitimizers in the power structure:

(1) Formal legitimizers - Administrative people.
(2) Informal legitimizers - Respected and influential people.

5. The Diffusion Stage

a. After an idea has been legitimized, it is ready to be moved to the diffusion stage.

b. At this stage it is determined whether or not the general public or the people will define the idea as a need.

c. The diffusion stage takes the program to the public. In each case careful evaluation should be made to see who does this. The idea originators may or may not make good diffusers.

6. Definition of Need

Once the diffusion set is established, try to make the problem become the people's problem. A number of techniques can be used to get large numbers of people to identify the idea as their problem.

a. Basic education.
b. Building on past experiences.
c. Demonstration on trial.
d. Program development committees.
e. Comparison and competition.
f. Exploiting crisis.
g. Channeling gripes.

7. Commitments to Action

After the people recognize the need, it is necessary to get a commitment to act, to do something. This may be: Agreement to attend meetings; to act at the proper time; to provide assistance; to pledge money; to take part in program; or a vote of confidence.

8. Setting Up Goals and Objectives

Once a felt need is established, out of it must come some definite targets, goals, or objectives.

9. Set Up the Plan of Action

a. After considering all alternatives, arrive at the best present alternative and proceed to set up the plan of action, a program with the organizational structure to carry it out.

b. In the plan of action such things should be considered as:

(1) A time schedule
(2) Committee setups.
(3) Kinds of personnel needed.
(4) Buildings required.
(5) Visual aids or other methods.
(6) Needs for meetings.
(7) Publicity.

10. Mobilizing and Organizing Resources

Once the plan of action is prepared, then it is necessary to mobilize and organize the available resources:

a. The time.
b. The people.
c. The monetary resources.
d. The physical facilities.
e. Whatever else is needed to actually carry the plan into action.

11. Launching the Program

In terms of a social action, some programs break down basically into sort of launching process. This launching process may be one or a combination of several forms:

a. Local publicity.
b. A series of tours.
c. A big full page ad campaign.
d. Written material which explains the idea.
e. Telephone calls.

The purpose of a launching program is to let people know that the action stages of the program are on the move. However, some programs move slowly because of their nature.

12. Carry Out Program

Once the program is launched, various steps necessary to carry the program forward must be followed.

13. Continuing and Final Evaluation

a. Between each of the action steps, as at all other places along the social action process, stop and evaluate:

(1) What we have done.
(2) Our next immediate goal
(3) Alternative means for reaching that objective.
(4) Plan the next move.

b. Total program evaluation:

(1) Was the idea accomplished?
(2) Were the methods and means used the best?
(3) Was good use made of the resources?
(4) Why was the program successful?
(5) Or why did it fail?
(6) Would it be planned differently if it were to be done over?
(7) What was learned?
(8) Where to go from here for further progress?

ADDENDUM

One of the most desirable and important things that can come from a TAM Leadership Institute is a strong, vigorous local TAM workshop program. Certainly, all of us attending the Minneapolis TAM Institute have been able to learn a great deal about the techniques of planning, organizing, and carrying out group action of this kind. The following guides and outlines, in pointing up significant procedures and recommendations, are intended for use by an interim inter-agency committee as a further aid to those who are charged with the responsibility of establishing local TAM workshops in their areas.

PART I
Consideration for Plan of Action

1. Review and Evaluate the Minneapolis TAM Leadership Institute

    a. General theme (Training in administrative management).
    b. Subject matter and content.
    c. Methods of presentation.
    d. Quality of speakers.
    e. Materials (organize, summarize, and evaluate for local adaptation).

2. Explose Plans for Local Application

    a. Boundaries of local areas or field of responsibility.
    b. Participation by:

        (1) USDA agencies.
        (2) Grade.
        (3) Number (Suggest 20-30 people).

    c. Adaptation to Meet Local Needs

        (1) One week (5 days).
        (2) One day per week for 5 weeks.
        (3) Other (Depending on local conditions and travel involved).

    d. Subjects to be included should be:

        (1) Geared to interest level of group.
        (2) Based on type of position held by those selected.
        (3) Geared to level of field activities.

    e. Prepare Outline Listing Benefits to be Derived from Participation in Local Workshop.

        (1) Improve supervisory and management abilities.
        (2) Train for additional responsibilities.

(3) Develop broader concepts.
(4) Improve working relationships.
(5) Explore new techniques.
(6) Etc.

f. Sources of Speakers

(1) Private industry.
(2) USDA agencies.
(3) Professional societies.
(4) Colleges and universities.
(5) Other federal, state, and local agencies.
(6) Churches.
(7) TAM participants.
(8) Civic organizations.

g. Contacts with agency heads by:

(1) Personal visits.
(2) Conferences or meetings.
(3) Written communications.

h. Set Up and Use a Local Steering Committee (See Part II)

(1) Initiating.
(2) Planning.
(3) Organizing.
(4) Conducting.

i. Local Leader and/or Manager

(1) Think through full responsibilities as local leader and/or manager (See Part II).

j. Reporting Discussions

(1) Preparation of summary of each session by designated members (At least two members per session).

(2) Appoint an editing committee to assemble and publish a report of the workshop. (It is important that summaries be prepared promptly and presented to the editing committee to insure that final drafts will be duplicated before the close of the session.)

k. Instruct Speakers to Furnish Sufficient Copies (One per participant) of the Prepared Address and Other Handout Materials

PART II

Plan of Action

1. Develop Preliminary Steps Toward Planning Local Workshops

a. Institute participants report to top management in their agency at the local level.

(1) On Minneapolis TAM Leadership Institute and its benefits.
(2) On benefits of local workshops.

b. Special Memoranda

(1) Endorsements from the Secretary of Agriculture, agency heads, etc. to memoranda that may be issued to field offices.

c. Local agency heads determine need for and scope of local workshop.

d. Local agency heads set up steering committee to plan, organize, and conduct local workshop.

2. Local Steering Committee to Plan and Organize

a. Determine Objectives.
b. Select local leader and/or manager.
c. Establish deadline dates for activities.
d. Determine with local agency heads.

(1) Grade of participants (See Report of Committee on Selection of Personnel to Attend Local Workshops).

(2) Number of participants.

(3) Selection of participants (Names).

e. Determine Date.
f. Determine location as to city, adequate space, facilities, etc.
g. Arrange program.

(1) Select subject matter which will meet needs of local people.
(2) Select speakers (Speakers prepare questions for workbook).
(3) Draw up detailed program.

h. Orient participants in advance.

(1) Notification of dates, time, and place.
(2) Send workbood and encourage study.
(3) Send material.
(4) Etc.

PART III

Conduct of Meeting (Under Direction of Leader)

1. Set Tone - Including:

a. Creation of atmosphere conducive to proper attitude.
b. Creation of atmosphere conducive to enthusiasm.
c. Introductions.
d. Selection of discussion leaders.

2. Encourage Freedom of Expression and Discussion by All Participants

3. Maintain Continuity and Coordination of Topics Aimed at Objectives

4. Adhere to Schedules

   a. Program (Provide for flexibility).
   b. Time of starting and stopping (promptly).
   c. Timely intermissions.
   d. Prompt attendance.

5. Periodically Review and Evaluate Progress Toward Objectives

6. Manager's Responsibilities

   a. Stenographic and typing services.
   b. Duplicating services.
   c. Supplies.
   d. Library facilities.
   e. Get acquainted activities.
   f. Other miscellaneous administrative details.

7. Arrange for Reporting of Discussions

8. Participant Evaluation

PART IV

Follow-Up by Steering Committee

1. Evaluation

2. Plan for Additional Workshop Sessions According to Needs

Revised from Previous TAM Institute Reports
Considering Experience Gained at Minneapolis
By
Following Committee:

Roland Abraham, Ext., Chairman
Earl Biddick, AMS
Lee Moore, SCS
Raymond Jokinen, CSS
Harry Karasov, ARS
James Coleman, FS
Gordon Klenk, FHA

CHARTER FOR TAM PROGRAM

The USDA Training in Administrative Management (TAM) Program was originally planned, organized, and carried out under the direction of the Secretary's Committee on administrative management. On January 7, 1957 the Secretary issued Memorandum No. 1410 establishing the USDA Management Improvement Committee. On May 1, 1957 this committee approved continuation of the TAM Program. Two TAM Leadership Institutes were approved to be held between July 1, 1957 and July 1, 1958. On May 13, 1957 over the signature of the Administrative Assistant Secretary the TAM Work Group was established and given the responsibility for planning, organizing, and conducting these TAM Leadership Institutes. The next TAM Leadership Institute for the states of Minnesota and Wisconsin has been scheduled to be held at Minneapolis, Minnesota February 24 to March 7, 1958. It is the hope of the USDA Management Improvement Committee and the TAM Work Group that those employees selected to attend the Kansas City and Minneapolis TAM Leadership Institutes working with the graduates of the Denver and Atlanta TAM Institutes will give the leadership necessary to plan, organize, and carry out a minimum of 30 local TAM workshops by December 31, 1958.

CURRENT LOCATION OF GRADUATES OF DENVER, ATLANTA, AND KANSAS CITY TAM INSTITUTES 1951-52-57

NAME AND POSITION	ADDRESS
JUNEAU, ALASKA	
Wayne Sword, Asst. to Div. of Adm. Management, Office of Asst. Reg. Forester (Kansas City Inst.)	U.S. Forest Service, USDA Juneau, Alaska c/o Jack Kern, Training Officer U.S. Forest Service, USDA Washington 25, D.C.
LITTLE ROCK ARKANSAS	
William B. Davey, Deputy State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.)	Soil Conservation Service, USDA 323 Federal Building
CALIFORNIA	
Sidney J. Adams, Regional Business Manager, Western Regional Business Office (Denver Inst.)	Agricultural Research Service, USDA 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, Calif.
Thomas H. Harris, Chief, Division of Forest Pest Control (Denver Inst.)	U.S. Forest Service, USDA 630 Sansome Street San Francisco 11, California
Nathaniel D. Hudson, Asst. State Leader, Extension Service (Denver Inst.)	College of Agriculture University of California Berkeley, California
Clayton N. Weaver, Asst. Forest Supervisor, USDA (Denver Inst.)	Placerville, California
A.F. Eckert, Meat Inspector (Atlanta Inst.)	Agricultural Research Service, USDA 630 Sansome Street San Francisco, California
Eugene Lepley, Forester (General) Division of Operations (Kansas City Inst.)	U.S. Forest Service, USDA 630 Sansome Street San Francisco 11, California
George Shramm, Classification Officer (Kansas City Inst.)	Agricultural Research Service, USDA Western Regional Business Office 800 Buchanan St., Albany, California

DENVER, COLORADO

Dorothy Montgomery, Personnel Officer (Denver Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA New Custom House, 19th & Stout Sts., Denver, Colorado

Jack C. McNutt, Chief, Recreation Mgt. Planning Section (Denver Inst.) — U.S. Forest Service, USDA Denver, Colorado

James Wenban, Section of Personnel and Adm. Services (Kansas City Inst.) — U.S. Forest Service, USDA Denver Federal Center, Bldg. 85, Denver 7, Colorado

GAINESVILLE, FLORIDA

John R. Butler, Agriculturist, (Atlanta Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA Cheops Office Bldg. 35 N. Main St., Gainesville, Florida

ATHENS, GEORGIA

Cecil W. Chapman, State Conservationist (Atlanta Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA P.O. Box 832, Athens Georgia

ATLANTA, GEORGIA

Ferd F. Dowis (Atlanta Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA Peachtree Seventh Bldg., Room 726 - 50 Seventh St. N.E. Atlanta 5, Georgia

Thomas Wilson, Asst. Area Field Supervisor, Food Distribution Division (Kansas City Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA 50-7th St. N.E., Room 252 Atlanta 23, Georgia

Clinton S. Herrick, Jr., Administrative Officer, Div. of State and Private Forestry (Atlanta Inst.) — U. S. Forest Service, USDA Atlanta, Georgia

Douglass A. Craig, Division Chief State and Private Forestry (Atlanta Inst.) — U. S. Forest Service, USDA Atlanta, Georgia

BOISE, IDAHO

Alton D. Crowe, State Adm. Officer, Idaho State ASC Committee (Kansas City Inst.) — U. S. Department of Agriculture P. O. Box 4068, Boise, Idaho

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

John E. Tromer, Chief, Personnel Branch (Kansas City Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA 536 So. Clark Street, Chicago 5, Illinois

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS (Cont.)

Lloyd W. Fletcher, Area Supervisor, Grading Branch Poultry Division (Kansas City Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA Room 1014, 610 S. Canal Street, Chicago 7, Illinois

DES MOINES, IOWA

Harlon H. Backhaus, Asst. State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA Iowa Bldg., 4th Floor, 505 6th Ave. Des Moines, Iowa

MANHATTAN, KANSAS

Dean W. Bernitz, State Director (Kansas City Inst.) — Federal Crop Insurance Corp., USDA 417 Humboldt, Manhattan, Kansas

SALINA, KANSAS

Stevan J. Kortan, Deputy State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA P.O. Box 600, Salina, Kansas

TOPEKA, KANSAS

Marvin E. Johnson, Adm. Officer (Kansas City Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA 420 New England Bldg. 5th & Kansas Ave., Topeka, Kansas

LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY

Herschel Hecker, State Conservationist (Denver Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA 231 W. Maxwell Street Lexington, Kentucky

George P. Summers, Personnel and Training Officer (Kansas City Inst.) — Extension Service, College of Agriculture, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

ALEXANDRIA, LOUISIANA

Roy Ussery, Adm. Officer (Kansas City Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA 1517 Sixth St. Alexandria, La.

NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA

Fred M. Smith, Administrative Officer Southern Utilization Research and Development Division (Denver Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service, USDA 2100 Robert E. Lee Blvd. New Orleans, Louisiana

Earl D. Sharar, Regional Business Manager, Southern Regional Business Office (Atlanta Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service, USDA Lowich Bldg., 2026 St. Charles Ave., New Orleans, La.

NEW ORLEANS, LOUISIANA (Cont.)

T. R. Turner, Chief, Fiscal Division (Kansas City Inst.) — New Orleans CSS Commodity Office, USDA, Wirth Bldg. 120 Marais St., New Orleans, Louisiana

BELTSVILLE, MARYLAND

Martin G. Weiss, Associate Director, Crops Research Division (Atlanta Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service, USDA, Plant Industry Station Beltsville, Maryland

Dale Harper, (Denver Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service, USDA, Plant Industry Station Beltsville, Maryland

EAST LANSING, MICHIGAN

Simon K. Kamminga, State Adm. Officer Soil Conservation Service, USDA (Atlanta Inst.) — Michigan State University Wells Hall, Unit E. East Lansing, Michigan

CASS LAKE, MINNESOTA

John Von Borgen, Forest Supervisor (Atlanta Inst.) — Chippewa National Forest Cass Lake, Minnesota

MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA

Harold W. Seilers, Management Analysis Officer (Denver Inst.) — Commodity Office, Commodity Stabilization Service, USDA 1006 West Lake Street Minneapolis 8, Minnesota

ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA

Oren R. Shelley, Vice Pres., St. Paul Bank for Cooperatives (Denver Inst.) — 346 Jackson Street St. Paul, Minnesota

Chester R. Holmstrom, Personnel Officer (Denver Inst.) — Farm Credit District of St. Paul, 346 Jackson Street St. Paul, Minnesota

GULF PORT, MISSISSIPPI

Frank I. Jeffrey, Asst. Regional Supervisor, Plant Pest Control Division (Kansas City Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service USDA, 3505-25th Avenue Gulf Port, Mississippi

JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI

Lewis J. Pate, (Veterinarian Livestock) Inspector in Charge of Jackson ADE Station (Atlanta Inst.) — Animal Disease Eradication Division, Agricultural Research Service, USDA 702 Milner Bldg., Lamar & Pearl Sts., Jackson, Miss.

JACKSON, MISSISSIPPI (Cont.)

Charles G. Deaton, Adm. Officer (Atlanta Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA, Room 450, Milner Bldg. Jackson, Mississippi

Ray B. Converse, State Statistician (Atlanta Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service USDA, 1002 State Office Bldg. Jackson, Mississippi

COLUMBIA, MISSOURI

Charles C. Cornett, Administrative Officer (Kansas City Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA, 812 Cherry Street, Columbia, Missouri

R. Bernard Galbreath, Adm. Officer (Operations Field Representative) (Kansas City Inst.) — Rural Electrification Administration, USDA, 200 North Moss, Columbia, Missouri

KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

S. J. Williams, (Denver Inst.) — Commodity Office, Commodity Stabilization Service, USDA Westport Road, Kansas City 11, Missouri

Richard P. Sargeant, Accountant (Kansas City Inst.) — Commodity Exchange Authority, USDA, 854 Board of Trade Bldg. Kansas City 5, Missouri

Jack H. Morrison, Area Director (Kansas City Inst.) — Federal Crop Insurance Corp. USDA, 6848 Locust St., Kansas City, Missouri

HAMILTON, MONTANA

Thurman Trosper, Forester (Administration) (Kansas City Inst.) — U.S. Forest Service, Bitteroot National Forest, USDA Hamilton, Montana

MISSOULA, MONTANA

Victor O. Sandberg, Asst. Chief, Div. of Pers. Management (Denver Inst.) — U.S. Forest Service, USDA Missoula, Montana

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO

Ray C. McDaniel, Deputy State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA, P.O. Box 1348, Albuquerque, New Mexico

RALEIGH, NORTH CAROLINA

Henry L. Rasor, State Statistician (Denver Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 207 State Dept. of Agriculture Bldg., Raleigh, North Carolina

R. M. Dailey, Deputy State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA, P.O. Box 5126, Raleigh, North Carolina

COLUMBUS, OHIO

Jasper E. Pallesen, State Statistician (Denver Inst.) — Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA, 217 Old Federal Bldg., State & Third Streets, Columbus Ohio

PORTLAND, OREGON

Walter L. Cline, Chief Adm. Staff (Kansas City Inst.) — Portland CSS Commodity Office, Commodity Stabilization Service, USDA, 1218 S.W. Washington St., Portland, Oregon

PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

Paul K. Knierim, Regional Business Manager, Eastern Regional Business Office (Atlanta Inst.) — Agricultural Research Service USDA, 600 East Mermaid Lane Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Glenn R. Allison, Chief, Section of Cooperative Pest Control, Division of State and Private Forestry (Atlanta, Inst.) — U. S. Forest Service, USDA Center Building, 6816 Market Street, Upper Darby, Pa.

John L. Hull, (Atlanta Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA 6816 Market Street, Upper Darby, Pa.

E. M. Karger, Division Chief, Operation, Fire Control & Personnel Management (Atlanta Inst.) — U. S. Forest Service, USDA Center Bldg., 6816 Market Street, Upper Darby, Pa.

Ross Stump, Adm. Officer, Division of Operations (Kansas City Inst.) — U. S. Forest Service, USDA Center Bldg., 6816 Market St. Upper Darby, Pennsylvania

COLUMBIA, SOUTH CAROLINA

George A. Meares, State Adm. Officer (Atlanta Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA, Federal Land Bank Bldg. 1401 Hampton Street, Columbia, S. C.

Joseph L. Trihey, Adm. Officer (Atlanta Inst.) — Farmers Home Administration, USDA Federal Land Bank Bldg. 1401 Hampton St., Columbia, S. C.

HURON, SOUTH DAKOTA

E. J. Bjorkland, Deputy State Conservationist (Kansas City Inst.) — Soil Conservation Service, USDA P.O. Box 1357, Huron, South Dakota

NASHVILLE, TENNESSEE

Thomas S. Miller, Administrative Assistant, (Atlanta Inst.)
Tennessee ASC Office, USDA
Room 579, U. S. Court House
Nashville 3, Tennessee

DALLAS, TEXAS

Tulane S. Smith (Denver Inst.)
Farmers Home Administration
USDA 500 S. Ervay Street
Dallas 1, Texas

Raymond J. Totoro, Asst. Area Supervisor, Food Distribution Division
Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA 500 S. Ervay Street, Room 3127, Dallas 1, Texas

FORT WORTH, TEXAS

Robert S. Kieldson, Asst. Inspector in Charge, Meat Insp. Division (Kansas City Inst.)
Agricultural Research Service
USDA 315 U. S. Court House
Fort Worth 2, Texas

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH

Glade Allred, State Administrative Officer, (Denver Inst.)
Utah ASC Office, USDA
Old Terminal Bldg., 222 S.W. Temple St., Salt Lake City, Utah

RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

W. T. Powers, State Adm. Officer (Kansas City Inst.)
Virginia State ASC Committee
USDA 900 N. Lombardy St.
Richmond 20, Virginia

PULLMAN, WASHINGTON

John P. Miller, Asst. Director of Extension, Extension Service (Kansas City Inst.)
State College of Washington
Box 328, College Station
Pullman, Washington

OLYMPIA, WASHINGTON

Dale Supplee, Asst. Veterinarian in Charge, Animal Disease Eradication Office (Kansas City Inst.)
Agricultural Research Service
USDA 203 Federal Building
Olympia, Washington

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

Fred J. Hart, Operations Field Representative (Denver Inst.)
Rural Electrification Adm., USDA Apt. 905-B, Nettleton Apts., Seattle, Washington

MADISON, WISCONSIN

Kenneth H. Hoover, State Administrative Officer (Denver Inst.)
Wisconsin ASC Office, USDA
3010 E. Washington St.
Madison 4, Wisconsin

WASHINGTON, D. C.

Donald R. Shepherd, Head, Cooperative Control Operations Section, Plant Pest Control Division (Denver Inst.)
Agricultural Research Service, USDA Washington 25, D. C.

Stanley J. Dorick, Chief, Procurement and Property Branch, Administrative Services Division (Denver Inst.)
Agricultural Marketing Service, USDA Washington 25, D. C.

Richard F. Nance, Asst. Director, Southeast Area (Atlanta Inst.)
Rural Electrification Administration USDA, Room 1235 S. Building
Washington 25, D. C.

Jack Kern, Training Officer (Denver Inst.)
U. S. Forest Service, USDA
Washington 25, D. C.

Harry A. Steele, Head, Land & Water Section, Farm Economics Branch (Denver Inst.)
Agricultural Research Service, USDA Room 4921 South Bldg., Washington 25, D. C.

Valentine W. Silkett, (Atlanta Inst.)
Soil Conservation Service USDA Room 5219 S. Bldg.
Washington 25, D. C.

Andrew C. Robinson, (Atlanta Inst.)
Agricultural Marketing Service Cotton Branch, USDA Room 602 Annex Bldg., Washington 25, D.C.

COMMITTEES AND PREPARATION OF REPORT

The following committees served in facilitating a smooth running and well rounded Institute:

STEERING COMMITTEE

DAVID MESICK, CHAIRMAN
P. G. HENNIG, JR.
ELVIN J. PERSON
JAMES T. MORGAN
GORDON F. KLENK

GUIDES COMMITTEE

ROLAND ABRAHAMS, CHAIRMAN
EARL BIDDICK
LEE MOORE
RAYMOND JOKINEN
HARRY KARASOV
JAMES COLEMAN
GORDON F. KLENK

SOCIAL COMMITTEE

W. F. MC PHERSON, CHAIRMAN
ROBERT JENSON
ROBERT A. RALSTON
ELVIN J. PERSON
GORDON D. LOGAN
HARRY KARASOV

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

D. H. WILLIAMS, CHAIRMAN
CLARANCE CAPAROON
CHARLES BUELL
E. A. SCHILF
ROBERT RALSTON
GEORGE REZNICHEK
BERTRAM JOHNSON
RICHARD DRESEN

This report was prepared in the course of the TAM Institute. Summaries of the various lectures were developed daily and the completed report was placed in the hands of the group during the final session.

The above procedure had certain advantages. It provided Institute members with experience in the preparation of complete yet concise reports. It also permitted summarizing the information while the subject matter discussed was still fresh in mind.

It might be argued that a more deliberate procedure would have produced a better report. This is probably true. But the possible advantage would have been more than overcome, we believe, by the gain to be derived from releasing this material promptly. Also, the outline form of this report is preferable, and more readable, than a more voluminous one which might have come from a longer preparation period.

In any event, we hope this summary will be useful not only as a report but also as a reference medium, including the planning of other TAM Institutes and local TAM workshops. The Committee appreciated and enjoyed the opportunity of working on this project and wishes to thank Thurman Trosper, the Minneapolis Commodity Office, and the entire group for their cooperation and assistance.

Editorial Committee

SPECIAL ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The effectiveness of this TAM Institute in attaining the stated objectives both of the participants and the USDA was enhanced by the efforts of many people. We are singling out several to whom we feel a deep personal appreciation. Most of their work was carried out behind the scenes but the results became increasingly evident as the Institute progressed. We refer particularly to the following:

THURMAN TROSPER, Office of Personnel, USDA, and Director of the TAM Institute. His job of over-all planning, organizing and directing this Institute was outstanding.

W. W. RUSSELL, SCS, Minneapolis, and LARRY ARENT, CSS Commodity Office, Minneapolis were the Local Manager and Assistant Manager, respectively. Their fine job in handling local arrangements and the day to day operations of the Institute is greatly appreciated.

THE PARTICIPANTS
MINNEAPOLIS TAM INSTITUTE

TAM WORKSHOP GUIDELINES

The attached includes the Institute's agreed upon definition of a TAM Workshop and seven guides for the workshops that should serve as broad guidelines for the planning and carrying out of local workshops. These should be reproduced on one sheet and mailed to each participant.

Definition of a TAM Workshop

A TAM Workshop is a one-week leadership training session for USDA people having administrative responsibilities, in the principles of sound management, conducted by those having TAM Institute experience, and participated in by those agencies of the Department within reach of an appropriate workshop location.

1. What should the program of a TAM Workshop include?

   Workshop programs should be developed to fit the needs of the group attending with emphasis on established problem areas in administration and assuming that the development of more effective leaders is a primary need in all agencies. Specific consideration should be given to the broad and basic aspects of a subject matter in order to be applicable at various levels of management and in varying agency programs.

2. Participants should be designated by the agencies from those with administrative responsibilities or potential. A minimum of 15 could justify the time, effort and expense put into the program with a maximum of about 25 to allow for full participation and acquaintance. Selection to be made by appropriate grouping of grade levels and designation to be well in advance to allow for preparation and scheduling of individual work plans.

3. Sufficient time, money and people should be authorized by each agency to assure sound planning for and execution of a workshop, with scheduling to be arranged in late fall or before spring (October to March) in order to coincide with most advantageous agency work plans.

4. Dynamic speakers and discussion leaders should be drawn from agency personnel known to be leaders in the subject area and such outside speakers as can bring stimulating and motivating material to the group in fields best adapted for outside approach.

5. Administrative sanction for a local or area workshop should be clearly made and announced, with authority stemming directly from the Department and Bureau offices in Washington to the field, and active support given by those having attended TAM Institutes.

6. The leadership responsibility of the workshop will be from those who have attended a TAM Institute with approval directly from the appropriate administrative Bureau source. Each agency head in the state to designate one TAM "graduate" to serve on a steering committee for the planning of workshops within the state.

7. Local workshops should be an established part of each agency's training program and agency training plans for other in-service needs should be coordinated with them in order to assure inter-agency approach to training in the administrative field.